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ABSTRACT

A study examined vocational education and training in Italy. First, vocational education was placed within the context of Italy's political and administrative structures and economy. Italy's systems of general and vocational education were described, and the legislative aspects were examined. Special attention was paid to funding from various European Community sources. It was concluded that vocational education in Italy needs a more standard and structured framework; however, it was deemed likely that demand from individuals and enterprises would be a further factor in continued diversification through experiments that may offer many people their only opportunity to catch up on the basis knowledge needed to obtain a job or improve their prospects. Increasing demand from small firms, the possibility of training providing skills in a number of sectors, and the spread of new technology into nonindustrial sectors were seen as three of many factors that would stimulate changes in both content and delivery of vocational education. European integration was deemed the greatest stimulus for renewal of vocational education in Italy. (Contains 43 tables/figures. Appended are the following: a list of acronyms/abbreviations; names/addresses of 46 agencies, organizations, and training institutions; a 65-item bibliography; and glossary.) (MN)

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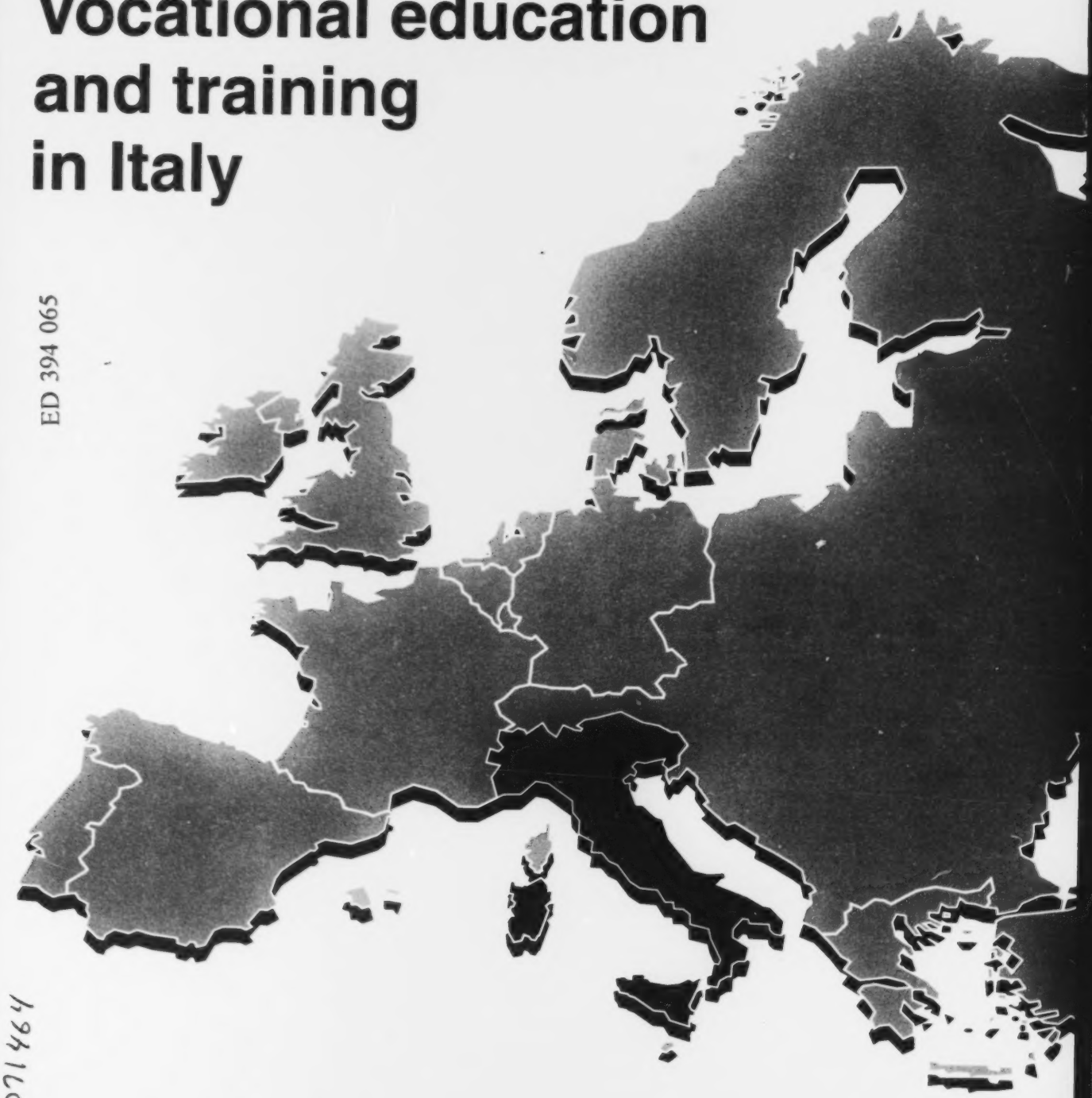

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CEDEFOP

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Vocational education and training in Italy

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CEDEFOP INTRODUCTION

IS THERE A SYSTEM?

Is there such a thing as a vocational training system? Strictly speaking the answer is no, in that a system assumes a clear set of objectives and a logical and coherent framework for policy-making and execution to achieve them. In reality, vocational training, sandwiches between the education system and the demands of the labour market, caught between the different and varying social, economic, and political priorities of political parties and the social partners, and in the conflicts between different ministries and public powers, located at national, regional, and local level, does not in any of the Community Member States demonstrate the characteristics of a system.

Neverless, this volume and the 11 similar volumes on the other Member States constitute a third generation of CEDEFOP monographs on the training systems in the Member States. In preparing it, much has been learnt from the procedures used for, and the reaction to, the earlier monographs and guide to the vocational training systems, published in 1983.

CONTENT OF THE REPORTS

The present monographs have been prepared by one organization or individual in each of the Member States, following a detailed specification by CEDEFOP of the contents required. These specifications were discussed and agreed at a meeting in Berlin in May 1991.

The basic structure was designed to incorporate:

(a) a presentation of the administrative, demographic, and economic background in which the training system exists;
(b) a brief historical review of the development of the training system;
(c) a presentation of the arrangements for initial training;
(d) a presentation of the arrangements for continuing training;
(e) an indication of where responsibilities for administering the system are located, including the influence of the social partners;
(f) information on financing the system;
(g) an indication of present trends and developments, where authors were asked, in particular, to indicate how far the system has been, or would be, influenced by Community considerations such as the creation of the single European market, mutual recognition of qualifications, the intervention of the Structural Funds, and the Community's education and training programmes.

THE PROCESS OF PREPARATION

Authors were asked to send a copy of their draft report for comment to the members of CEDEFOP's Management Board in their country, and organizations with a major role in the training system. They were requested to incorporate the views expressed to the maximum extent possible. Whereas in general authors were asked to be descriptive and analytical, they were encouraged in the last section ((g) above) to express their own views.

Initial draft monographs on each of the Member States were delivered to CEDEFOP in the period between September 1991 and March 1992. As experience had led us to except, the documents received varied considerably in their approach, content, and presentation. Between January and October 1992 CEDEFOP had a series of intensive meetings with each of the authors, in order to ensure that certain elements were added to the reports and that they respected specific rules with relation to presentation. A novel and very beneficial feature of these meetings was participation in many cases by the translators responsible for translating the volume concerned.

Following these meetings the authors revised their report on the basis of what was said during the meeting, took account of comments received, and included references to recent developments in their country.

USE OF DIAGRAMS

It had been hoped that a large number of diagrams could be developed which would be common to all the monographs, and could then be used to simplify comparison between the Member States by the reader. These could later become the basis of additional publications, such as a guide to the training systems or particular aspects of them. However, we found that while it is relatively easy to obtain and present statistical information on the population, the employment market, and the economy, it remains difficult not only to obtain hard and comparable data on many aspects of the education and training systems of all 12 Member States, but also to present this information in a useful diagrammatic form.

WHO ARE THE USERS?

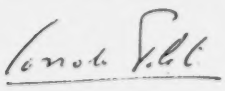
A question which came up repeatedly in the preparation of the monographs was: what is our primary user group? Our belief is that these monographs will be useful to a wide range of people active in vocational training, including policymakers, practitioners, and researchers, but also to those seeking training in another country, and needing to know the framework in which it is provided. They are therefore, in particular, geared towards the needs of those who participate, or wish to participate in any of the Community programmes involving partnerships, visits, etc., hence the emphasis on having monographs which do not require reference to further documents.

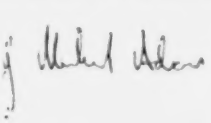
LINKS WITH OTHER COMMUNITY ACTIVITIES

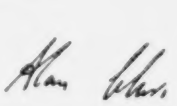
CEDEFOP has been anxious that this work should be seen in the context of other Community activities with relation to information on the education and training systems. CEDEFOP has been glad to participate in the joint publication with Eurydice on 'Structures of the education and initlal training systems in the Member States of the European Community' available in English, French and German. The European unit of Eurydice and CEDEFOP have also tried to ensure that the authors of the monographs on the training systems, and the Eurydice units providing information for the national dossiers on the education systems, should be in contact with each other. The European unit of Eurydice and CEDEFOP similarly are continuing their efforts to ensure that the products of this work should be available to a wide audience and, with this in mind, are investigating possibilities of holding the information on a common automated system.

In a more general way, as indicated above, CEDEFOP considers these monographs should be useful in supporting other activities of the Community in the field of training, and through this the implementation of the new provisions, contained in Articles 126 and 127 of the Maastricht Treaty.

The publication of these monographs does not mark the end of this activity. Arrangements will be made for their updating and their republication as appropriate and as resources permit. CEDEFOP would be extremely pleased to have comments on their usefulness and proposals on how they could be improved, from anybody who has occasion to use them.







Corrado Politi
Deputy Director

J. Michael Adams

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Berlin, November 1992

CONTENTS

		Paragraph	Page
Presentation of the research			6
SECTION 1 — BACKGROUND INFORMATION			8
1.1	**Political and administrative structure**		9
	The Italian Republic	1.1.1	9
	Principal structures governing the educational and training system	1.1.2	10
	The Ministry of Education	1.1.3	10
	The Ministry of Universities and Scientific and Technological Research	1.1.4	10
	The Ministry of Labour and Social Security	1.1.5	11
	Regions and other local authorities	1.1.6	12
1.2	**Population and labour force**		15
	Population	1.2.1	15
	Labour force	1.2.2	18
	Unemployment	1.2.3	23
	The foreign labour force	1.2.4	24
1.3	**The economy**		26
SECTION 2 — VOCATIONAL TRAINING SYSTEMS			28
2.0	**Preface**		28
2.1	**The education system**		28
	The general education system: initial education	2.1.1	28
	Historical evolution of the education system: the post-war legislative picture	2.1.2	28
	Educational system: structure, organization and trends	2.1.3 to 2.1.8	30
	Lycée education	2.1.9	33
	Teacher training	2.1.10	33
	Technical education	2.1.11	33
	Vocational education	2.1.12	34
	Art education	2.1.13	34
	Upper secondary education	2.1.14	35
	Innovative ventures: the role of experimentation	2.1.15	37
	Links between school and vocational training: the 'Project 1992' post-qualification	2.1.16	39
	University teaching arrangements	2.1.17	40
	University of the Third Age	2.1.18	42
	Quantitative aspects of the educational system — the school population	2.1.19	43
	Development of full-time education	2.1.20	47
	Education supply	2.1.21	47
	Education demand	2.1.22	48
	Training needs	2.1.23	48
	Analysis of critical aspects of the educational system: school drop-out rates	2.1.24	49
	Flows, streams and routes within the educational system	2.1.25	53
	Economic aspects of the educational system	2.1.26	54

CEDEFOP

		Paragraph	Page
2.2	**The vocational training system**		56
	The historical evolution of vocational training	2.2.1	56
	Vocational training: overall picture	2.2.2	60
	Training supply: variety and multiplicity of 'suppliers' in the training market	2.2.3	60
	Features of training supply	2.2.4	61
	Changes in training demand	2.2.5	62
	Social demand for training: current users	2.2.6	62
	Central nature of the regional vocational training system	2.2.7	65
	Changes and new flows in regional vocational training	2.2.8	65
	Other types of course	2.2.9	67
	A crossroads — the most appropriate and relevant areas for vocational training in the 1990s	2.2.10	68
	Quantitative aspects of regional vocational training activities	2.2.11	69
	Regional spending on vocational training	2.2.12	72
	Trainers	2.2.13	74
	Vocational training in enterprise	2.2.14	75
	Numbers of people 'trained' in enterprise	2.2.15	76
	Young people placed in enterprise	2.2.16	77
	Management and business training	2.2.17	79
	Continuing vocational education and training		
	— Adult education	2.2.18	81
	— Continuing vocational training	2.2.19	82
	Some specific problems		84
	— Guidance	2.2.20	84
	— Southern Italy: a key area in the social demand for training	2.2.21	84
SECTION 3 — STATUTORY AND FINANCIAL STRUCTURES			86
	Introduction		86
3.1	**Statutory structure**		86
	From the entry into force of the Republican Constitution to the outline law: the predominant role of the State	3.1.1	86
	Placement — Law 264 of 29 April 1949	3.1.2	88
	Apprenticeship	3.1.3	89
	The employment-training contract	3.1.4	91
	The outline Law of 21 December 1978 on vocational training: the predominant role of the regions	3.1.5	92
	Planning of training schemes	3.1.6	93
	Qualifying examinations	3.1.7	94
	Teaching staff for vocational training	3.1.8	94
	Management of vocational training	3.1.9	95
	Enterprise as a training partner	3.1.10	97
	Vocational training and collective bargaining	3.1.11	97
	Reform of the outline law — working hypotheses	3.1.12	97

CEDEFOP

		Paragraph	Page
3.2	**Financial aspects**		100
	Rotation Fund	3.2.1	100
	Fund for the Supplementary Funding of Special Projects	3.2.2	101
	Fund for Workers' Mobility	3.2.3	101
	Common Fund	3.2.4	102
	Regional funds	3.2.5	102
	Special funds	3.2.6	103
	Private funds	3.2.7	104
	State and regional expenditure on vocational training	3.2.8	105
	The European Social Fund	3.2.9	105
	Conclusions	3.2.10	106
SECTION 4 — TRENDS AND PROSPECTS			108
4.1	**The complexity of the vocational training system**		108
	The fields of training	4.1.1	108
	More skilled work activities	4.1.2	108
	Operational activities	4.1.3	108
	Continuing training	4.1.4	109
4.2	**Urgent needs: proposed strategies**		110
4.3	**European integration**		112
4.4	**The culture of change**		113
	Training in change	4.4.1	113
	The new occupations	4.4.2	114
	Training as a route	4.4.3	115
ANNEXES			
Annex 1: List of acronyms			116
Annex 2: Address list of agencies, organizations and training institutions			119
Annex 3: Bibliography			124
Annex 4: Glossary of terms			130

PRESENTATION OF THE RESEARCH

The 'European citizen' is the intended end-user of this research which aims to outline the Italian educational and vocational training system. It contains four sections on the current state of the art and provides a conclusion outlining future plans.

The first section describes the political system and in particular how the structure of government relates to vocational training. It describes the four fundamental decision-making bodies and their specific powers: the Ministry of Education, responsible for general education up to the end of upper secondary education; the Ministry of Universities and Scientific and Technological Research, responsible for administering the university system and State research agencies which are, in the main, attached to universities; the Ministry of Labour and Social Security, which, in addition to placement, guidance and employment in general, is also responsible, in conjunction with the European Community, for general vocational training policy nationwide; the regions and the various local authorities (provinces, communes, mountain communities, local health units, chambers of commerce, etc.) which are actually responsible for the planning and management of the vocational training system.

The second part of the first section briefly describes the way in which the labour force breaks down by economic sector, by employment status, by age and by sex, highlighting the structural problems raised by youth unemployment, women's difficulties in taking an active part in the world of work and the differences between the north, centre and south of Italy. Some attention has also been paid to the presence in Italy of groups of immigrants from outside the European Community. While these groups are not as yet a cause for concern in numerical terms, they are starting to raise social concerns; although they play a positive role in the labour market, taking work in areas which do not attract the native labour force, these groups are potentially marginal and a potential source of social unrest. For these groups too, education and vocational training should be a right and should also offer a real chance.

This section therefore looks at the serious problems blocking the way to Italy's full integration into Europe according to the parameters laid down by the single market: restructuring of public finance, contained labour costs and the slowing down of price fluctuations and thus the rate of inflation. These factors are all closely linked to the development of the economic system, to an active labour and employment policy and to improving both the quality of life and the quality of work.

The second section tackles the subject and problems of general education and the university system, with particular emphasis on the projected demand for upper secondary education and on teaching and structural reforms at university level. Faced with an increase in numbers entering higher education and against a background packed with educational experiments aiming to anticipate and shape reforms of upper secondary education, the critical nature of the productivity of the overall system is stressed: a high drop-out rate in the group aged 13 to 18, too many university students who are registered but not attending courses, too low a proportion of graduates from those initially registering. The second part of this section examines vocational training, detailing the relationship between supply and demand, portraying the major planning efforts being made by the regions and the high level of autonomy they have achieved, and also examining the initiative of third parties: enterprise, authorities and non-aligned consultancy, vocational training and management organizations. Guidance as well as adult and continuing training are mentioned as important aspects, and are areas in which Italy has much to

learn from other standardized and supported educational models based on prior experimentation (for instance those of France and the United Kingdom).

The third section tackles the legislative aspects of vocational training, looking at the two main phases of the postwar period: the predominantly State-controlled period from the establishment of the Republic of Italy up to 1978 and the period following draft Law 845 of 21 December 1978 on vocational training, under which State powers were finally transferred to the regions, and through them to third-party contractors.

The second part of this section develops the theme of funding as defined in the draft law and other national laws covering innovation in the system and in the methods and technology of teaching, regional laws and private sector investment. Special attention is paid to European Community funding: Structural Funds, integrated Mediterranean programmes, Community interest programmes.

The conclusion shows that training is nowadays a necessity shaped by our perception of changing technologies, production systems and labour organization. It shows that training is both highly dynamic and highly stable, paving the way for new roles and professions. Training is also the best material for building a frontier-free Europe. For this reason Italy should take a much more active and interactive part in special Community programmes: as emphasized in the text, training is a 'route'.

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Italy

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1.1 Political and administrative structure

The Italian Republic

1.1.1
According to the Republican Constitution which was promulgated on 27 December 1947 and came into force on 1 January 1948, Italy (301 278 km^2 and over 57 million inhabitants) is a republic founded on labour and popular sovereignty. The top tier of the Constitution is the State whose organs are: the Parliament (in the form of two chambers — Chamber of Deputies and Senate of the Republic), the President of the Republic and the Government.

The Italian Republic is considered to be an atypical parliamentary republic because:

— the President of the Republic possesses, in addition to the conventional powers of the head of a parliamentary State, a number of supervisory, counterbalancing and promotional powers;

— legislative powers are controlled by a specific organ, the Constitutional Court, and the Higher Council of the Judiciary is also of constitutional importance in order to guarantee the sovereignty and autonomy of the judiciary;

— considerable emphasis is also placed on individual autonomy (rights of freedom), institutional autonomy (family, associations of various types) and geographical autonomy.

This latter choice was designed to curb the centralizing nature of the monarchic State and to place greater emphasis on the movement towards decentralization intended to promote local autonomy.

From the point of view of administrative divisions, administration is decentralized under the Constitution to three tiers of local government: communes, provinces and regions, the first two having more limited powers and the third having wider powers, their own autonomous powers and the ability to legislate on some issues.

The regions are divided into ordinary statute regions whose statute is formulated in line with the Constitution and the laws of the Republic and regions with special statutes which may depart in specific areas from the terms of the Constitution and exercise legislative powers which replace State legislation in some fields.

Of the 20 regions, whose size and population varies, 15 have ordinary statutes and five have special statutes: Sicily, Sardinia, Valle d'Aosta, Friuli-Venezia Giulia and Trentino-Alto Adige.

Through its central administration, the Republic therefore provides policy and planning guidelines and finance, and works towards fully and efficiently decentralized administration by delegating powers whose scope depends on the particular legal statute and the ability which regions and local authorities demonstrate in organizing the administrative machinery and the overall government of the area for which they are responsible.

This principle was enacted by Law 382 of 22 July 1975 setting out regulations on the regional system and on the organization of the public administration, under which the State transferred and delegated the administrative tasks for which it was responsible to the regions and by Presidential Decree 616 of 24 July 1977, under which the State enacted the implementation of the delegation set out in Article 1 of Law 382/75.

Principal structures governing the educational and training system

1.1.2
In Italy there are basically two State structures administering the educational system:

(a) the Ministry of Education;
(b) the Ministry of Universities and Scientific and Technological Research;

and two structures administering vocational training:

(c) the Ministry of Labour and Social Security;
(d) the regions.

The Ministry of Education

1.1.3
The Ministry has political responsibility for organizing the administration, planning and evaluation of State education, for coordinating government and local (provincial directors of education) authorities, for inspection tasks at central and local level, for the correct conduct of examinations of all types and educational level with the exception of university examinations, and for the certification of those people passing primary, lower secondary and upper secondary leaving certificates.

The Ministry is assisted in its day-to-day work by the Higher Council for Education.

The Ministry of Universities and Scientific and Technological Research

1.1.4
This Ministry has political responsibility for developing university regulations and teaching practices and for developing scientific and technological research at universities or delegated to specialist bodies such as the National Research Council.

The Ministry of Universities is assisted by the Consiglio Universitario Nazionale (CUN — National Universities Council) which is a body elected by Italian universities.

The CUN is consulted in respect of all the issues for which the Ministry is responsible, including interuniversity coordination, the recruitment and legal status of university lecturers and researchers, the allocation of funding for scientific research and the formulation and updating of national regulations on teaching arrangements and university development plans.

The Ministry of Labour and Social Security

1.1.5
Article 18 of Law 845 of 21 December 1978, the outline law on vocational training, defines the main areas of responsibility of the Ministry of Labour and Social Security.

These include the following important tasks:

(a) the establishment and funding of vocational training schemes for Italian workers abroad, the supervision and administration of which is the responsibility of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs;

(b) the preparation and funding of training schemes for staff to be employed on programmes of technical and cooperative assistance for developing countries;

(c) study, research, documentation, information and experimentation, to be set out in a specific annual programme based on national planning requirements, and guideline and coordination requirements in the sector;

(d) technical assistance and funding of vocational training schemes by agreement with and through the regions in cases where there is a substantial local imbalance between labour supply and demand;

(e) organizing and funding, by agreement with the regions and at their initiative, of refresher courses for personnel employed on vocational training schemes;

(f) establishing the technical requirements for recognizing the suitability of premises and equipment set aside for vocational training.

ISFOL (Institute for the Development of Workers' Vocational Training) monitors the regions and provides them with technical assistance on behalf of the Ministry. The regions and ISFOL must submit an annual report to the Ministry of Labour and Social Security on the current state of vocational training and plans for future activities.

1. The Central Employment Commission

expresses opinions and puts forward proposals for carrying out the work of the Ministry of Labour and Social Security.

2. ISFOL (Institute for the Development of Workers' Vocational Training)

ISFOL is a public institution which works in cooperation with the Ministry of Labour and other State and regional authorities for the promotion of vocational training.

Its institutional aims are to promote research and study of innovations and the occupational skills required by the labour supply and demand; to provide technical assistance with the planning and design of training; experimentation with teaching methods and multimedia programmes; documentation on employment policies and training and guidance methods for workers.

Regions and other local authorities

1.1.6
Article 3 of Law 845/78 defines the powers and functions of the regions which are essentially:

— to organize the vocational training system by developing public ventures and providing a whole range of training opportunities;

— to ensure the participation of labour and management bodies responsible for formulating regional plans and local authorities;

— to define methods and criteria for consultation, for planning purposes, with the local offices of the Ministries of Social Security, of Labour and of Education;

— to guarantee the democratic and trade union rights of all those taking part in the promotion of vocational training experiments;

— to bring their legislation into line with international and EU law;

— to regulate any delegation to local authorities of administrative tasks relating to the issues set out in the law.

In conclusion, the tasks of the regions are to draw up multi-annual plans and annual plans for the implementation of training activities based on harmonious dialogue between a plurality of partners having different and complementary functions.

Planning is thus one of the prime movers within a circular system of needs analysis, planning of training schemes, planning of courses and monitoring of proposed activities.

The decentralized regional system operates in a way which mirrors the operation of the State.

The representative organ of regional sovereignty is the Regional Council with a president, while the executive organ is the Regional Commission which also has a president. In regions with special statutes the powers of the Regional Council and Commission almost completely replace those of the State.

In general, the regional system is more turbulent than the national system, both because problems take on a very local colour and because the national parties leave their local organizations some discretion over their choice of allies: this has a considerable impact on the operational nature of the system and its ability to cope with needs as they arise and avoid one of the more critical traps of the system of regional financial management: funding deficits.

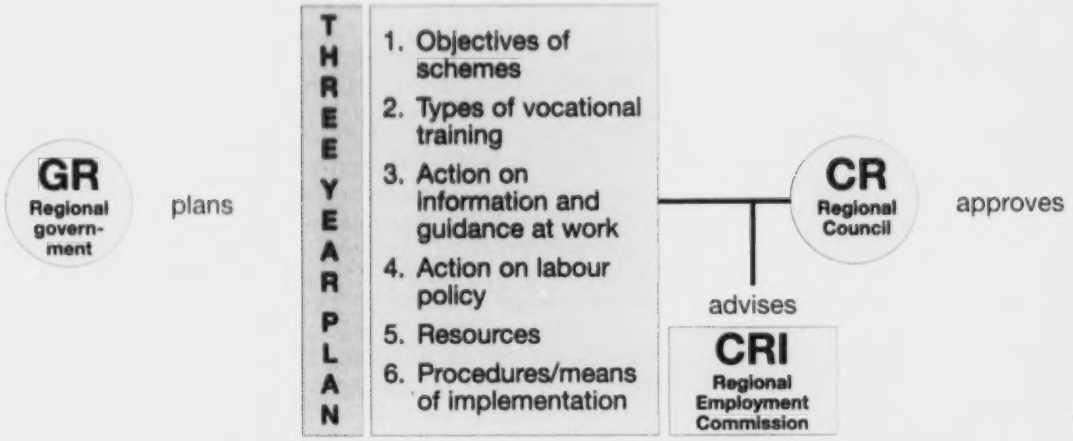
Regional vocational training policy, leaving aside differences in the powers delegated to commissioners (the regional 'ministers'), is formulated by the Regional commission through the relevant commissioner and after hearing both sides of industry, i.e. entrepreneurs and workers ('social auditing'). The Commission formulates and obtains approval for the three-year plan, which is updated annually, taking account of urgent local needs and guidelines from the central authority responsible for labour and employment policy and the European Union, following a debate in the council chamber.

The commissioner is thus responsible for implementing the plan of activities and for financial management and is answerable, where necessary and depending on the issue involved, to the region, the State and the EU.

Regional planning, without looking in detail at the practices of the individual regions, is generally concluded by the end of the year so that the relevant ministry can have a complete picture of regional initiatives and receive requests for finance from EU funds (the European Social Fund (ESF) in particular) within the first six months of the following year and, once examined, the plan may be approved and funded in the autumn through the national finance law or forwarded to the EU for evaluation. Examples of the planning process and the use of management resources are given in the following tables.

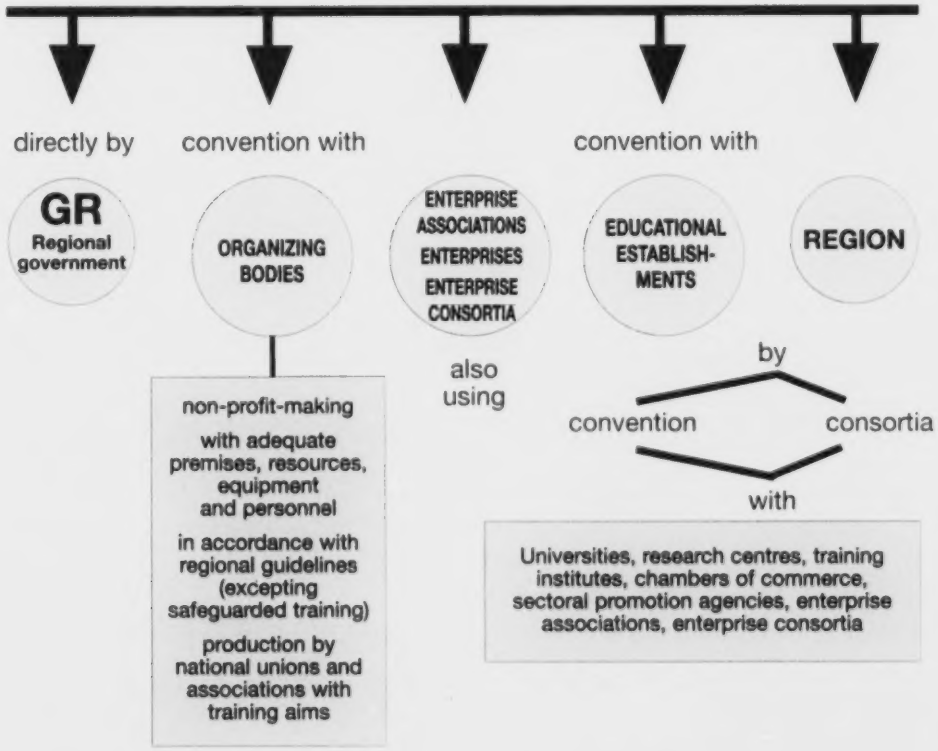
Further details are given in Section 2 and in particular in Section 3 which examine the way in which vocational training systems have evolved and the outline law on vocational training which not only regulates the practices of the institutions (regions and State) involved but also those of the social partners, agencies and operators in the system.

The planning process



Management resources

REGIONAL TRAINING SET IN MOTION



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1.2 Population and labour force

Population

1.2.1
In terms of its qualitative and quantitative aspects the population is both a factor of supply as it provides the labour force and a factor of demand as it represents a consumer market.

In the sociodemographic analysis of the Italian population given in this section the qualitative aspects of education and vocational training and, in a broader sense, the cultural and operational potential of society are stressed rather than quantitative aspects.

The resident population, on the basis of the most recent census data, is estimated at 57 576 400, with one of the highest population densities in Europe of 190 inhabitants per square kilometre.

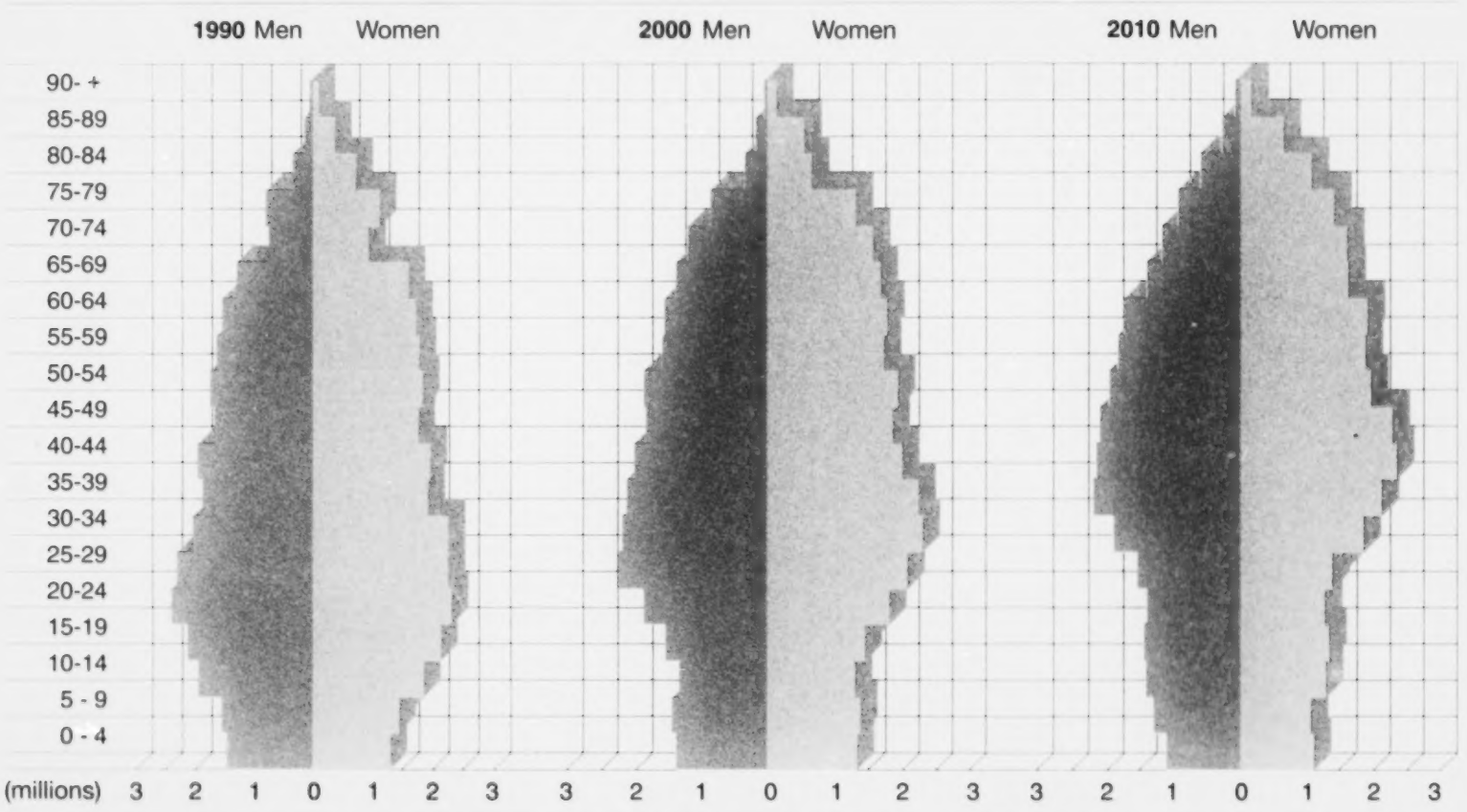
There are more women than men in the population, 29 607 900 as against 27 968 500. This dominance is evident, however, from the 35 to 39 age group upwards, which means that the labour force of the future will contain a smaller discrepancy between the male and female working population.

The most worrying aspect from a demographic point of view is the birth rate of 10 per 1 000, one of the lowest in the EU.

An interesting scenario in terms of gender and age group as at 1 January 1990 is shown in a recent Eurostat publication ('Demographic statistics', 1992).

Structure by age group (Italy)

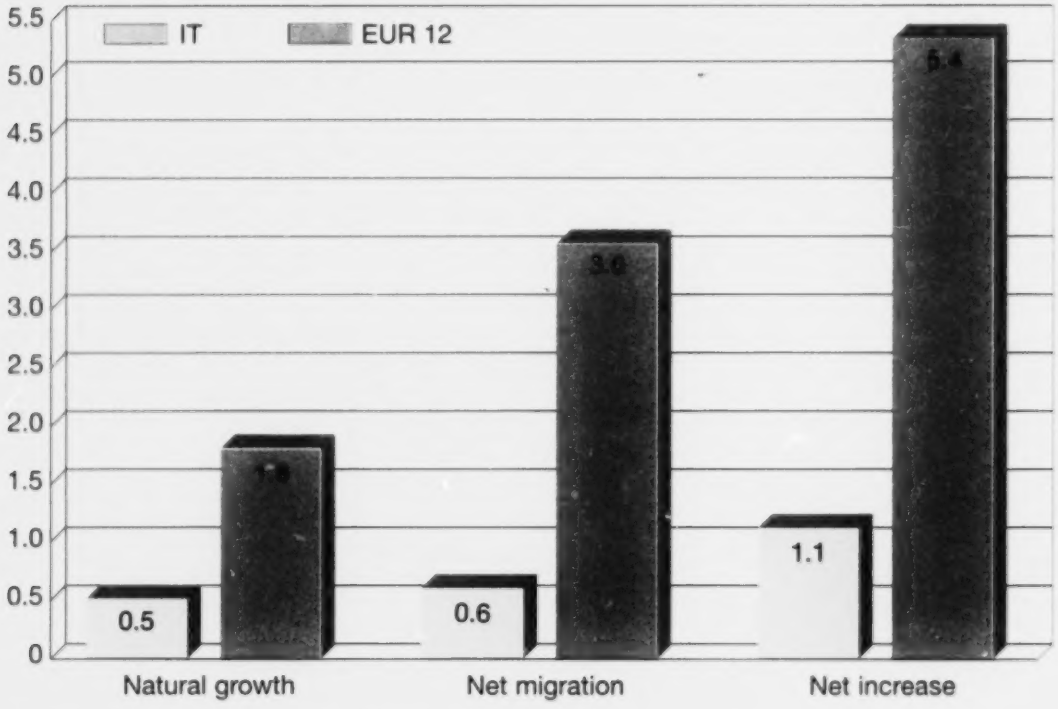
Pyramid on 1 January 1990 — Forecasts for 2000 and 2010



Source: Eurostat — Demographic statistics, 1992.

Population forecasts by gender and age for the year 2000 (see diagram) show that in 10 years' time the Italian population will have increased by only some 35 000, from 57 576 400 to 57 610 900. Forecasts for the year 2010 show an alarming decrease of around 1 200 000.

Variations in the population in 1989 (per 1000 inhabitants of mean population)



Source: Eurostat — *A social portrait of Europe*, 1991.

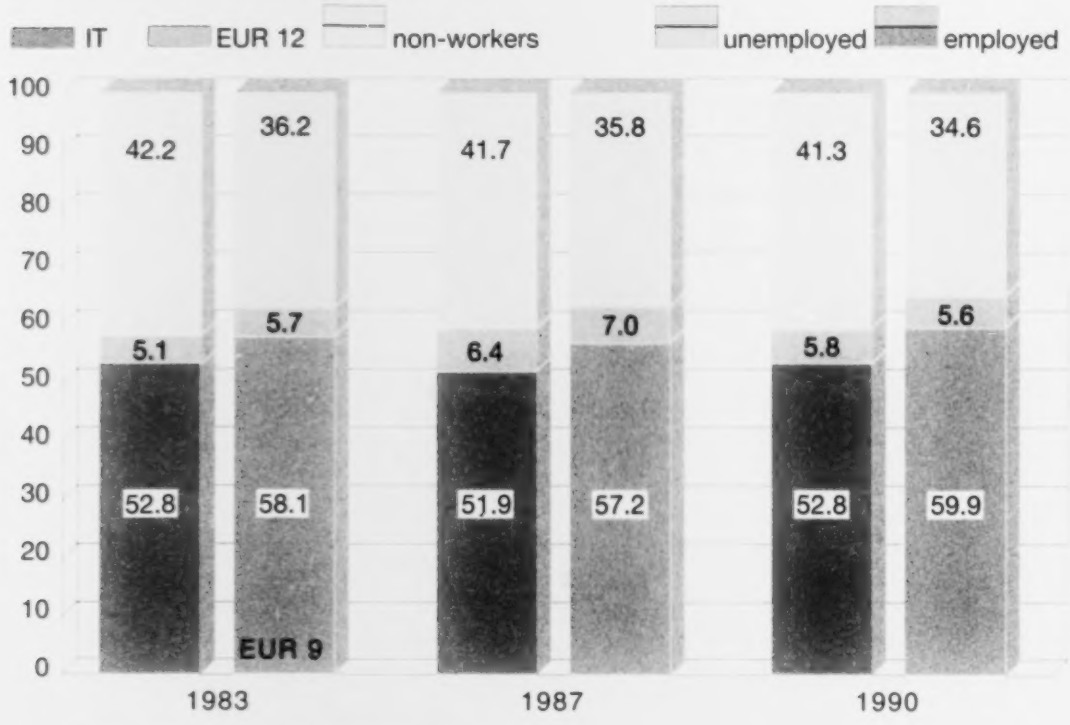
Labour force

1.2.2

The labour force, on the basis of data supplied by the labour force survey, is considered at three main points in time: 1983, 1987 and 1990, against three analysis variables: the employed, the unemployed, and the non-working population and people aged between 14 and 64. An initial comment is that the percentage of the population in employment remains constant at 52.8 % between 1983 and 1990, while the non-working population shows a slight percentage decrease, but with an increase of almost one per cent in the number of unemployed.

There is an upward trend in the rate of employment of people between the ages of 14 and 64 taken against these three points in time, with a total working population of 38 312 000 in 1983 rising to 39 107 000 in 1987 and 39 449 000 in 1990.

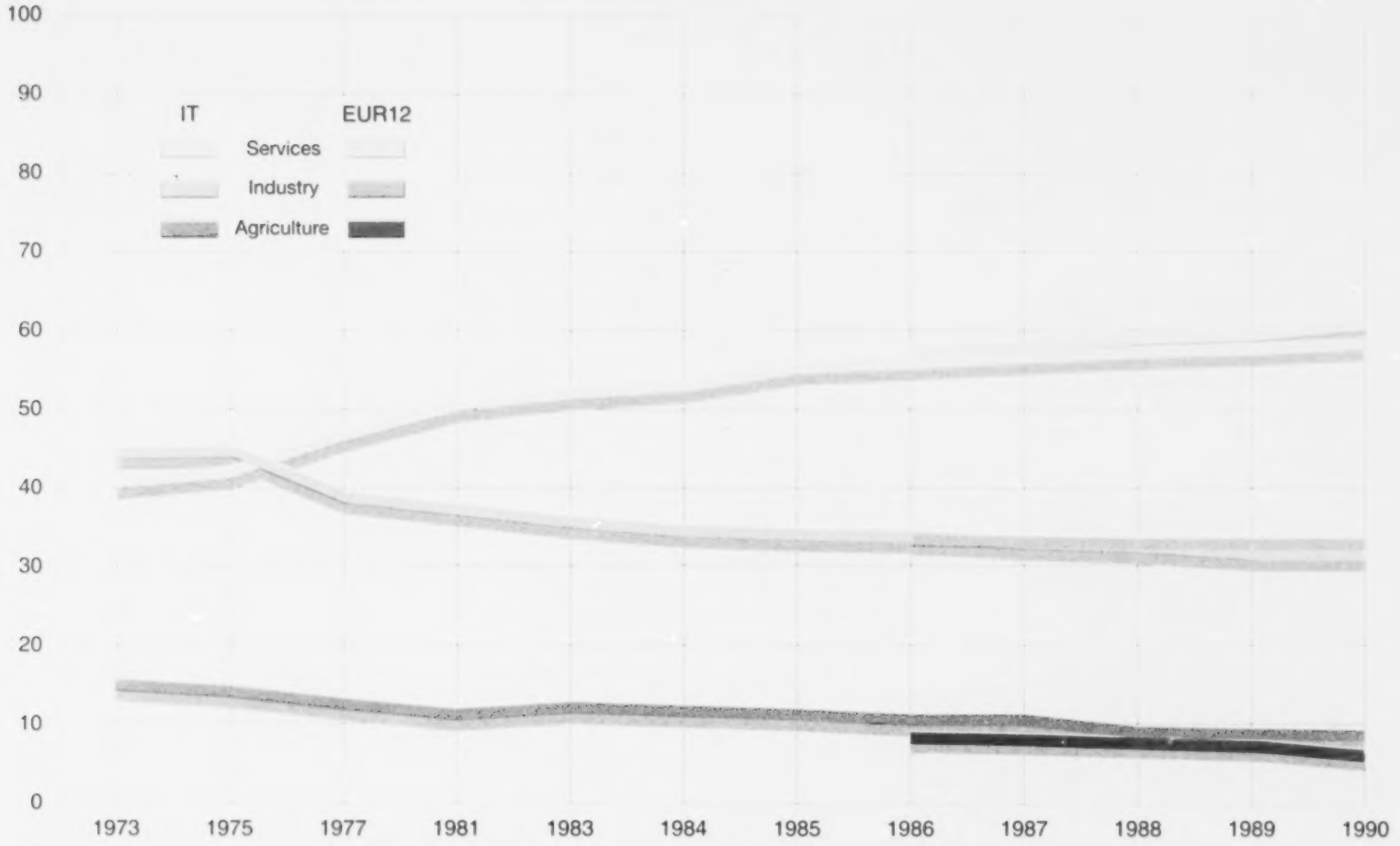
Labour force trends 1983/87/90 in the 14 to 64 age group (%)



Source: Eurostat — Labour force survey.

A differential labour force sampling survey carried out by Eurostat shows the trends, in absolute and percentage terms, in the breakdown of the labour force between 1973-89 by the main sector of employment, occupational status and the three traditional sectors: agriculture, industry and the service sector.

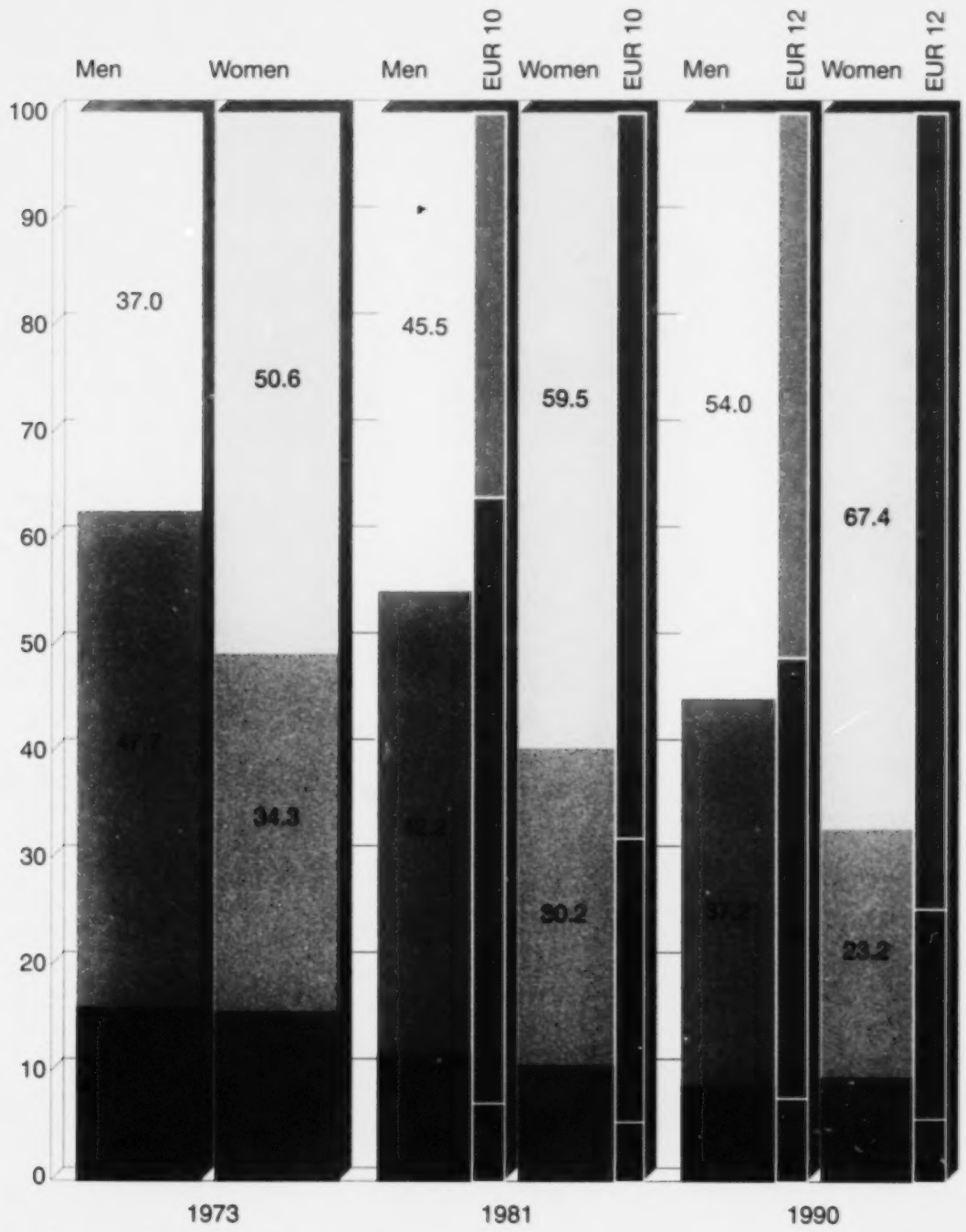
Labour force breakdown (Italy)



Source: Eurostat — Labour force surveys, 1980-91.

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Employment by sector %/Men/Women (Italy)



Source: Eurostat — Labour force surveys.

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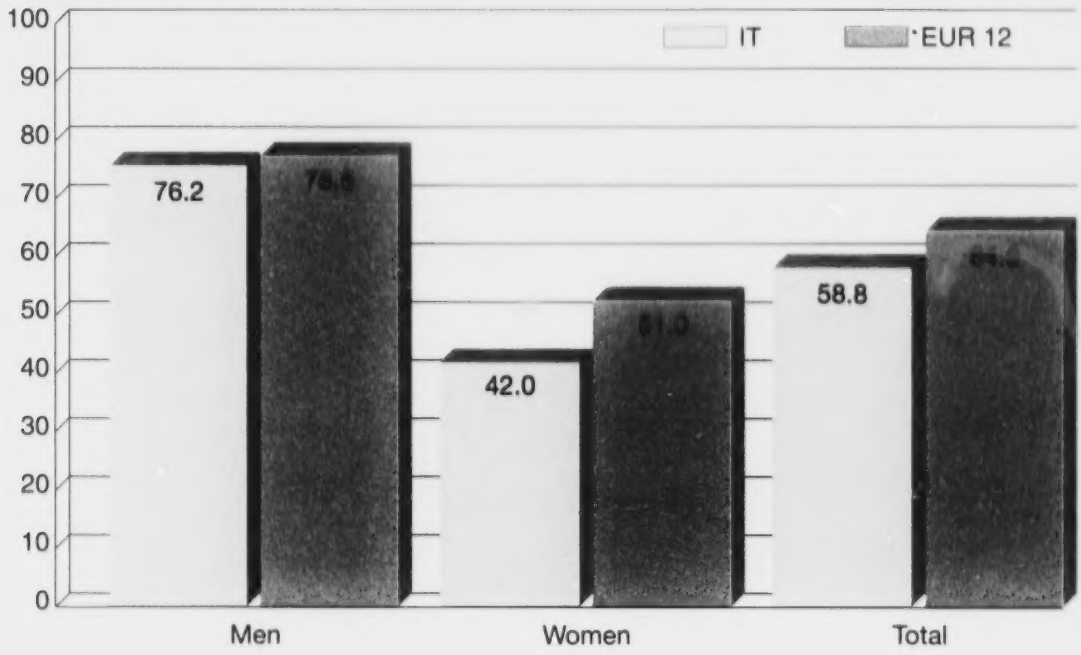
Looking at the breakdown of those employed by occupational status, it can be seen that 71.8 % are manual workers, 24.3 % are employees or self-employed and 4.0 % are domestic workers. The most striking feature of the breakdown of the percentage data by gender is that women outnumber men in manual work (76.1 % against 69.5 %) and consequently that larger numbers of men are working as employees or in self-employment.

Finally, analysing the data as a whole, those in employment in 1990 were distributed as follows: agriculture (9 %), industry (32.4 %) and the service sector (58.6 %).

Working population aged 14 to 64 in 1988 (%)



Source: Eurostat — *A social portrait of Europe*, 1991.

The Eurostat labour force survey goes into further detail and highlights the breakdown of employment in EC Member States, and therefore Italy, in the main sectors of economic activity according to the NACE classification.

Economic activity with reference to the NACE classification

%	1983 IT	1987 IT	1987 EUR 12	1990 IT	1990 EUR 12
Industry					
Energy and water resources	1.3	1.6	2.0	1.1	1.5
Mining, chemicals industry	4.4	4.4	4.5	3.3	3.6
Heavy and mechanical engineering	10.7	8.5	11.6	7.1	10.0
Other industry	15.3	14.0	11.5	12.0	10.4
Construction	10.6	9.5	7.2	8.8	7.8
Total	**42.3**	**38.0**	**36.8**	**32.3**	**33.3**
Services					
Commerce, hotels and catering	12.0	12.8	16.0	20.8	18.9
Transport and communications	6.5	6.7	6.4	5.4	5.9
Banking, insurance	3.9	4.9	7.7	4.2	8.0
Public administration	10.8	11.8	9.7	7.9	7.6
Other services	18.1	20.4	20.9	20.3	19.7
Total	**51.3**	**56.6**	**60.7**	**58.6**	**60.1**

NACE = Nomenclature of economic activities within the European Communities

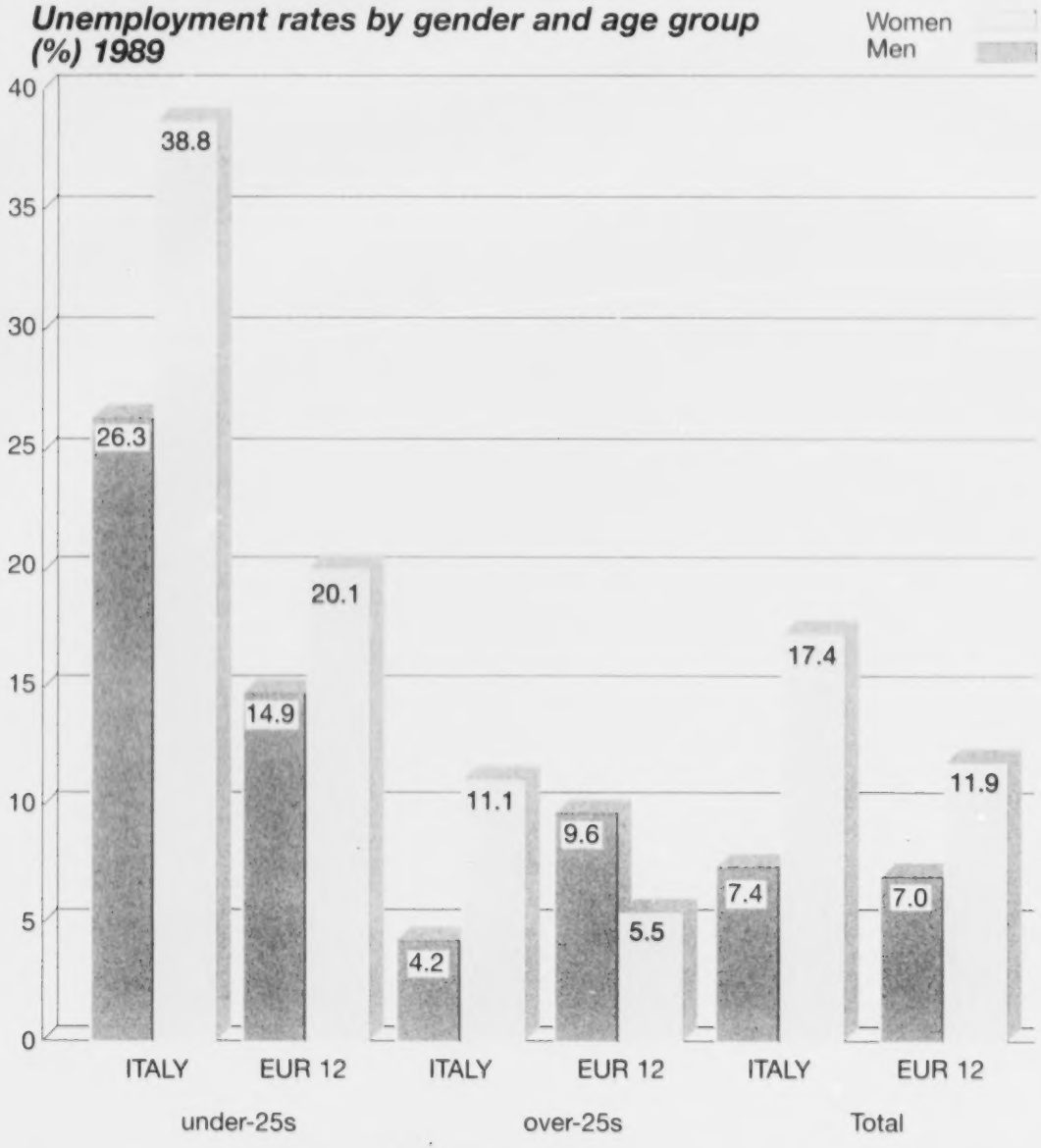
Source: Eurostat — Labour force surveys 1983, 1987 and 1990.

Unemployment

1.2.3

The rate of unemployment by gender and age group, according to official Eurostat data (1989), is 11.1% overall. A breakdown of this data shows that the rate of female unemployment of 17.4 % has a considerable impact on the total and is substantially above the European average (11.9 %), while male unemployment, despite a substantial divergence between the north and south of Italy, continues to be in line with the European average (7.4 % as against 7%). Unemployment among the under-25s, is reaching worrying proportions at 32.1%, with men accounting for 26.3 % and women for 38.8 %. The percentage of unemployed people, both men and women, aged over 25 is within more acceptable limits: 6.6 % in total, lower than the European average of 7.1 %.

Unemployment rates by gender and age group (%) 1989



Source: Eurostat — *A social portrait of Europe*, 1991.

The foreign labour force

1.2.4
In the early 1990s, public attention was focused on the increasing numbers of legal immigrants and on a varied and numerous population of semi-clandestine or clandestine immigrants which stirred public opinion and was often used as a pretext for racist attacks not seen in Italy for the last 50 years.

It started to become evident that a marginal, illegal area was being created, no longer behind closed doors, and was creating problems of public order as well as cultural and socioeconomic problems.

The government had to act and introduced a whole range of administrative measures to bring the illegal workforce out into the open by means of a law making it compulsory for immigrants to regularize their positions by obtaining residence permits and signing on regularly at placement offices. The law also made it compulsory for employers of foreign workers to check the regularity of their status with respect to regulations on public order and employment, under penalty of administrative sanctions.

According to data from the Ministry of the Interior, updated to 30 April 1991, Italy has 662 000 legally resident non-EU immigrants, placing a somewhat different complexion on the alarmist estimates of over one million non-EU immigrants in Italy.

The main flows of immigrants are from the countries of South America, Africa and Eastern Europe.

Non-EU foreigners legally resident in Italy as at 30 April 1991

Morocco	84 758
Tunisia	44 780
Philippines	38 379
Yugoslavia	29 967
Senegal	28 828
Egypt	21 360
China	19 910
Poland	17 402
Brazil	15 242
Argentina	13 589
Iran	12 936
Ethiopia	12 795
Sri Lanka	12 733
Ghana	12 240
India	11 621
Somalia	10 851
Romania	9 540
Albania	8 821
CIS	7 306
Pakistan	7 074
Nigeria	6 297
Colombia	5 847
Peru	5 781
Mauritius	5 633
Lebanon	5 581
Cape Verde islands	5 265
Venezuela	5 133
Bangladesh	5 110
Dominican Republic	4 873
Chile	4 532
Turkey	4 483
Algeria	4 229
Hungary	4 174
Jordan	3 732
Other countries	173 245
Total	**662 047**

Source: Prime Minister's Office.

Recent ISFOL research based on Ministry of the Interior data has shown the reasons given by foreigners living in Italy for work or study purposes.

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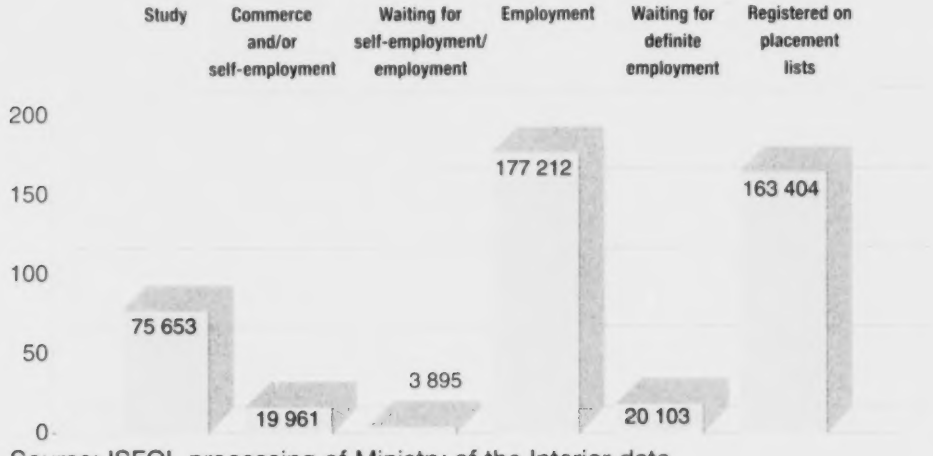
Foreigners living in Italy for work or study purposes
(Situation on 31. 12. 1990)



Source: ISFOL processing of Ministry of the Interior data.

Four figures stand out: apart from the 10% living in Italy to study, some 30% work as employees, a further 25% are on placement lists and 3% are occupied in commerce or are self-employed.

This trend is also starting to have an impact on the demand for training: data from the Central Statistical Office (ISTAT) on the numbers of foreign pupils in Italian schools in the 1989-90 academic year show the gradual incursion of this group into the educational system at all levels with over 10 000 non-EU pupils and over 1 500 non-EU nationals in the vocational training system.

Numbers of foreign pupils in Italian schools, 1989-1990

Country	Total	Nursery	Primary	Lower secondary	Upper secondary	Vocational training
EU	5 462	808	2 394	844	1 406	363
Africa	3 684	810	1 591	560	723	803
America	2 915	579	1 355	529	452	295
Asia	3 410	742	1 412	645	611	416
Oceania	71	13	24	11	23	3
Total	**15 542**	**2 952**	**6 776**	**2 589**	**3 215**	**1 880**

Source: ISTAT 1991.

1.3 The economy

Italy is nowadays a highly industrialized country ranked among the most highly developed countries of the world.

The structural problems Italy must face on the economic front are essentially the restructuring of public finances and the fight against a rate of inflation which is still running at around 5 to 6 % although it has shown a tendency to decrease over the last few years.

Measures to restructure public finances, income policy measures intended to curb wage increases and tax and pricing policies able to slow price increases are the main methods by which the government intends to solve these problems.

In order to restructure public finances and bring the system into line with the single market, a plan is being drawn up to sell off assets and privatize State enterprise and to turn State-controlled companies into private limited companies.

Labour costs are another crucial problem since they have to be brought into line with the forecasted rate of inflation of 4.5 % for 1992 in order to improve the profitability of Italian enterprises and the competitiveness of the economy as a whole.

In conclusion, the Italian economy is looking for competitive positions in the external market able to cope with the challenges imposed by international markets and the global economy, through acquisitions and alliances in the strategic sectors of the future: telecommunications, transport, informatics, industrial automation. In the domestic market attempts are also being made to reduce the substantial technological, consumption and production gap between North and South.

Long-term trends in the Italian economy

	1971-80	1981-90	1991-95
	(annual mean variation rates)		
Gross domestic product	3.8	2.2	2.8
Domestic demand	3.6	2.4	2.7
– Household consumption	4.4	2.7	2.8
– Collective consumption	3.2	2.5	1.1
– Gross fixed investment	2.1	1.7	3.7
Employment	1.0	0.6	1.0
Labour cost per employee	18.4	11.9	5.1
Productivity	2.8	1.6	1.8
Household consumption deflator	14.6	10.0	4.2
Current account balance[a]			
– annual means	–0.1	–0.8	–0.9
– end of period	–2.2	–1.3	–0.0

Value added to market prices (constant prices)	**1970**	**1980**	**1990**	**1995**
	(percentage breakdown)			
Agriculture	7.7	4.8	3.9	3.8
Industry	38.8	37.7	36.0	35.6
Services destined for sale	40.4	44.7	48.4	50.0
Services not destined for sale	13.1	12.8	11.7	10.6
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**

[a] In relation to GDP.

2.0 Preface

This section deals primarily with the problems of the educational system at all levels and grades and ending with the upper secondary certificate which marks the end of upper secondary education. This system of education comes under the auspices of the Ministry of Education.

This is followed by an examination of the problems of the university system which, although connected to and a direct continuation of the school system, comes under the auspices of the Ministry of Universities and Scientific and Technòlogical Research. The problems raised by the system of vocational training 'at work', 'on the job' and 'for special categories' are finally examined.

The system of vocational training in Italy is structured in a way which is partially parallel to and partially an alternative to the educational system. It is administered by the Ministry for Labour and Social Security, the regions, local authorities (provinces, communes, etc.), enterprises and their associations or training facilities, unions and their training facilities and private agencies.

2.1 The education system

The general education system: initial education

2.1.1
A complex set of factors, the most important of which is the accelerated development of industrialization and new technology, has led in recent years in Italy, as in almost all countries, to an enormous increase in the school population and in scientific and technical knowledge.

These developments have highlighted the need, for instance, to raise the school-leaving age, broaden the social base of school recruitment, convert secondary schools into schools for everyone and therefore to work towards the unification of at least the first cycle of secondary education and the elimination of the cultural divide between academic and technical education. Achieving these objectives means that all the forces at work in the sector are engaged in intensive work to restructure, reorganize and update the educational system.

Historical evolution of the education system: the post-war legislative picture

2.1.2
The Italian State makes the right to study, the opportunity for education and training and the freedom to express oneself and make one's views known, fundamental rights common to all citizens. Article 34 of the Republican Constitution states that schools are open to all and that basic education lasting at least eight years (ages 6 to 14) is compulsory and free.

The Constitution also accepts the principle of the pluralism of schools: the Republic has the task of laying down general regulations on education and of establishing State schools for all levels and grades and also allows organizations and individuals to set up schools and educational establishments, giving legal status to their situation and leaving them free to organize and decide on the content of teaching.

Post-war rebuilding and the subsequent economic boom which were features of the end of the 1950s and the beginning of the 1960s, accentuated the need to bring schools into line with the changing needs of society and in particular with the mobility typical of the new social classes.

The State had the economic ability and was adequately developed, socially and culturally, to implement the terms of the Constitution through the unification of lower secondary education and vocational development schools, at the same time raising the school leaving age to 14 (Law 1859 of 31 December 1962).

Law 754 of 27 October 1969 was another step in the direction of a reduction of the gap between utilitarian schools and general schools. This law introduced, on an experimental basis, special and supplementary courses into vocational schools, providing access to university (Law 692 of 14 September 1970 extended these regulations to art schools).

This was followed by Law 910 of 11 December 1969 on urgent measures for universities enabling graduates from all upper secondary schools offering five-year and four-year courses (in the latter case with attendance of a supplementary year's course) to register with any university faculty with no limitation of choice.

Opening the doors of universities to all upper secondary school graduates was as revolutionary as the unification of lower secondary education. For the first time in Italian history the dichotomy between pre-university schools and pre-vocational schools which had been one of the fundamental features of the Italian education system, was swept away, at least from an institutional point of view. It then became necessary to review the concept of the 'division' of secondary education into a multiplicity of parallel and separate schools as a function of university entrance.

In brief, another important step, in addition to the extension of compulsory education in 1962, was the enactment of Delegation Law 477 of 30 July 1973 and the subsequent Delegated Decrees (1974) providing a Magna Carta of innovation in the organization, roles and functions of schools and making experimentation and joint administration the two prime movers of development.

Since 1974, parents and pupils have been able to take part in school management; the powers of head teachers have been reduced and have been delegated in part to a number of joint bodies; Italy is divided into different units and school administration is decentralized (National Schools Councils, District and Provincial Schools Councils, etc.).

Consequently, while schools were structured in a vertical way in the past, they now reflect Italy's social situation as a result of the participation of parents, pupils, non-teaching staff, local authorities (communes, provinces and regions) and social and cultural forces in the mechanisms established by law.

Education system: structure, organization and trends

2.1.3
Education in Italy is centralized and controlled by the State; the Ministry of Education in the case of compulsory education and upper secondary education and the Ministry of Universities and Scientific and Technological Research in the case of universities and research centres.

All schools, whether public or private, abide by the guidelines and teaching programmes laid down by the Ministry of Education; private schools have autonomy over the teaching methods which they use and their administration.

The academic year for teaching staff begins on 10 September and ends on 9 August (Article 11 of Law 517 of 4 August 1977). It includes 215 days of actual teaching between September and June, although some days may vary depending on regional school calendars).

2.1.4
Pre-school education is given in nursery schools to children aged from 3 to 6. It is free but non-compulsory.

2.1.5
Compulsory education currently takes place from the ages of 6 to 14 (or 15 if the lower secondary certificate has not been passed) and lasts a total of eight years; the draft law reforming lower secondary education makes provision, however, for its extension to 10 years.

Compulsory education has included primary school (five years) and lower secondary school (three years) since 1 October 1963, each of which has specific educational objectives, methods and contents.

2.1.6
Primary (or elementary) education lasts for five years (from the ages of 6 to 11) and is divided into five classes. At the end of this period the primary education certificate is obtained and is a valid qualification for entry to lower secondary school.

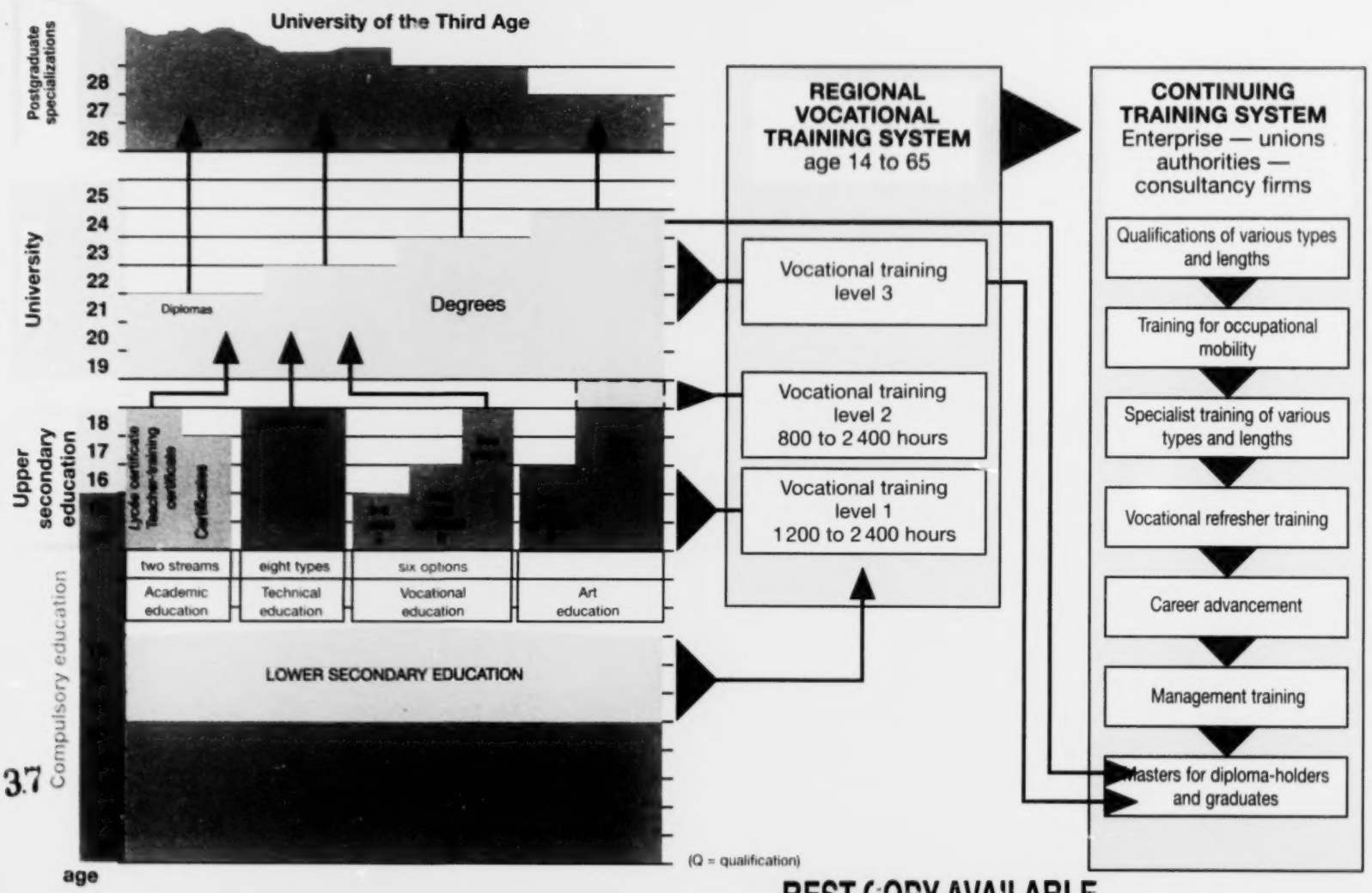
2.1.7
Initial secondary education (or lower secondary school) lasts for three years (from the ages of 11 to 14) and aims to promote the education of pupils and offer guidance for the purposes of subsequent vocational and educational choices.

At the end of the three years pupils successful in an examination receive the lower secondary certificate allowing them entry to any upper secondary school.

The end of the third year of lower secondary education marks the end of compulsory education.

2.1.8
Subsequent secondary education (or upper secondary school) offers a substantial number of options lasting different periods and with different objectives. The Italian Parliament is currently studying a proposal for the reform of upper secondary education as a whole.

Structure of education and training systems (Italy)



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Since 1969, any upper secondary certificate entitles students to enter university (in any faculty).

Upper secondary education includes: academic education in *lycées* (five years) and nursery teacher-training schools (four years), technical education divided into various specialist options all lasting five years, vocational education divided into a number of options lasting three or five years and art education, including *lycées* and art schools, lasting three to five years. Graduates can enter the Academy of Fine Arts.

Italy has 21 basic types of secondary school including a total of over 100 specialist options.

Many secondary education reform plans have been formulated over the years, none of which have yet been enacted in legislation although they have led to interesting experiments with curricula.

Current thinking can be summarized as follows: most people agree that upper secondary education should be split into two cycles (a two-year cycle followed by a three-year cycle) and that the first cycle (between the ages of 14 and 16) should be compulsory but differ as to methods of implementing reforms of the final cycle of secondary education between the ages of 16 and 19.

While there are those who argue for unification and coordination, there are also those who argue for the differentiation of educational streams.

Satisfying both these groups is felt to be highly desirable in the international field as well.

Transition from the current system of a wide range of schools to a coordinated and unified system is now the key issue in terms of commitment and conflict among the various parties and the various people in charge of changes in the educational sector.

Upper secondary education — division into course types

- **Academic education**
  - a.1 *Lycées:* two types (classical and scientific);
  - a.2 Teacher training: two types (primary and nursery teacher-training schools);

- **Technical education:** eight basic types (agricultural, commercial, surveyors, nautical, industrial trades, women, business and tourism) divided in turn into a multiplicity of options (for instance 29 in schools for industrial trades);

- **Vocational education:** six streams (agricultural, industrial trades, maritime, commercial, hotel trade, women), each divided into a large number of skill specializations (51 in industrial trades, 23 for women, 17 for agriculture, seven for commerce, etc.);

- **Art education:** includes art *lycées*, the School of Applied Arts, which is divided into 23 specialist sections, and the Conservatory of Music.

The various educational streams are analysed in further detail below.

Lycée *education*

2.1.9
The **classical *lycée*** prepares students for university. Courses last five years and are divided into a lower cycle of two years and an upper cycle of three years. Final-year students passing a State examination receive the upper secondary classics certificate.

The **scientific *lycée*** was established under the Gentile Law as a special school and places special emphasis on education in the sciences.
At present, scientific *lycées* provide general academic education offering considerable scope for further studies. Final-year students take a State examination: the upper secondary scientific certificate.

The **language *lycée*** is a language school, not run by the State, but which issues, following a State examination, a certificate which is a valid qualification for university degree courses. Courses last five years.

Teacher training

2.1.10
Primary teacher-training schools, offering four-year courses, train primary teachers. At the end of the four years, students sit an examination in primary education and if successful receive the relative certificate; this certificate is a valid qualification for entry into the faculty of education, the higher institutes of physical education and some degree courses in foreign languages and literature. Under Law 910 of 11 December 1969 and until reforms are implemented, students with primary teachertraining school certificates who have attended a one-year qualifying course can register for any degree course.

Nursery teacher-training schools, offering three-year courses, are legally recognized private schools preparing students to work in nursery schools. Final-year students sit an examination to gain the nursery teacher-training school certificate. No provision is made for access to university.

Technical education

2.1.11
Technical schools prepare students for medium-level technical and administrative occupations in the fields of agriculture, industry, commerce and tourism.

According to the relevant establishing regulations, this stream 'is intended to provide suitable general and special education for young people intending to enter specific careers in the public service, in industry, in commerce and in agriculture'.

At the end of the five-year course students sit an examination of technical aptitude and if successful receive the corresponding certificate and can then enter the particular occupation. There are currently nine types, with various specialist options, to cover the vast range of skills required by the various sectors of public and private employment (technical schools for commerce, tourism, business studies and foreign languages, agriculture, industrial

trades, surveyors, aviation, nautical studies and women). The various schools run evening classes for worker students and some computing courses for programmers. In 1961 it became possible to enter some university faculties from technical schools and this was extended by law in 1966.

In contrast to other schools which are directly answerable to the Ministry of Education, technical and vocational schools have partial autonomy, bearing in mind their institutional links with manufacturing firms and the local economy.

The boards of management of technical schools are responsible for administrative and financial management and have their own funds and budgets.

Vocational education

2.1.12
Vocational schools are intended to provide short-term training for skilled workers and operational personnel for the various sectors of the economy. They were set up in the 1920s by private individuals to meet new local economic requirements and aimed to teach blue-collar and general manual workers the basics of a trade. They differ from technical schools in their aims and in the predominantly practical content of courses and teaching methods.

Entry is on the basis of the lower secondary certificate or, after the age of 15, an admission examination. Courses last two or three years depending on the different training needs and skills involved. They include theoretical teaching (50%) and practical teaching (50%); students progress through the course on the basis of assessment (or resit examinations) and on completion receive vocational education certificates whose recognition for occupational purposes is laid down by law.

Law 754 of 17 October 1969 set up, on an experimental basis, special courses intended to place more stress on the academic components of the first two years of vocational education and special one-year, two-year or three-year courses to extend the length of courses to five years and provide education on a par with five-year upper secondary education. Final-year students take the upper secondary vocational certificate and if successful can go on to university.

Vocational schools have the most autonomy of all secondary schools as far as this is possible with a rigidly centralized educational system. While the autonomy of technical schools is exclusively administrative, vocational schools also have autonomy as regards teaching. Vocational schools have legal status and can operate autonomously, under the supervision of the Ministry of Education. This autonomy is a result of their links with the production world; some experimental 'work-schools' have been set up in industry for this purpose.

Art education

2.1.13
This includes a number of schools: academies of fine arts, art *lycées* (set up in 1923 and generally attached to the academies of fine arts), conservatories of music, schools of applied arts, the National Academy of Dramatic Art, the Academy of Dance and the National Silvio D'Amico Academy (set up in 1935).

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Course lengths vary although three years is standard, while in schools of applied arts there are two cycles (lower and upper) each lasting three years and at the National Academy of Dance both the course in classical dance and the advanced course last eight years.

Upper secondary education

2.1.14

Distribution of pupils by type of upper secondary education (absolute and percentage values)

Type of school	1986–87	1987–88	1988–89	1989–90	1990–91[a]
Vocational schools	518 438	521 078	525 540	539 209	541 576
Total technical schools	1 223 958	1 252 399	1 292 544	1 304 899	1 300 528
Industrial	319 889	326 103	331 358	328 055	329 657
Commercial	614 914	635 144	664 420	676 179	667 743
Surveyors	150 412	152 152	158 344	162 252	168 710
Primary and nursery teacher-training schools	189 905	188 735	188 730	188 994	185 804
Scientific *lycées*[b]	433 970	454 189	477 094	497 068	505 954
Classical *lycées*	211 593	217 282	222 466	227 807	229 548
Art schools and *lycées*	79 398	85 651	91 518	95 025	97 573
Total	**2 657 262**	**2 719 334**	**2 797 804**	**2 853 002**	**2 860 983**
Vocational schools	19.5	19.2	18.8	18.9	18.9
Total technical schools	46.1	46.1	46.2	45.8	45.5
Industrial	12.0	12.0	11.9	11.5	11.5
Commercial	23.1	23.4	23.7	23.7	23.3
Surveyors	5.7	5.6	5.7	5.7	5.9
Primary and nursery teacher-training schools	7.1	6.9	6.7	6.6	6.5
Scientific *lycées*[b]	16.3	16.7	17.1	17.4	17.7
Classical *lycées*	8.0	8.0	7.9	8.0	8.0
Art schools and *lycées*	3.0	3.1	3.3	3.3	3.4
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**

[a]Provisional figures.
[b]Includes language *lycées*.

Source: CENSIS processing of ISTAT data.

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The above table gives a summary of numbers in upper secondary education: for each stream it is thus possible to analyse the total number of students and the relative percentages for which they account in overall student numbers. Student numbers in technical schools, although accounting for 45.8% of all secondary school numbers (i.e. approximately 1 308 000 people) are tending to decrease; the same is true of vocational schools (decreasing from 19.5% in 1986-87 to 18.9% in 1989-90). Student numbers (some 494 000 people) at scientific *lycées* are tending to increase (from 16.3% to 17.3%) while student numbers at classical and art *lycées* have remained much the same (8.0% and 3.3% respectively, corresponding in absolute terms to 228 000 and 95 000 people).

Age of compulsory education and school attendance in % from age 15 to 19 in some European countries (1987/88 academic year)

	Compulsory until (age)	Age 15	Age 16	Age 17	Age 18	Age 19
Belgium	16 (18)	95.8	95.5	92.7	72.0	55.5
Denmark	16	97.4	90.4	76.9	68.6	53.0
France	16	95.4	88.2	79.3	63.1	46.4
Germany	16 (18)	100.0	94.8	81.7	67.8	45.5
Greece[a]	14	82.1	76.2	55.2	43.6	30.9
Italy[b]	14	82.0	65.0	55.0	44.0	34.0
Ireland[a]	15	95.5	83.9	66.4	39.6	24.7
Netherlands[c]	16	98.5	93.4	79.2	59.7	44.5
UK	16	99.7	69.3	52.1	33.1	27.7
Spain[d]	14 (16)	84.2	64.7	55.9	30.4	13.8

NB: The age in parenthesis refers to part-time training for those who cease their studies.
[a]1986-87.
[b]CENSIS estimates.
[c]Excluding part-time upper secondary education.
[d]Excluding level 3.

Source: CENSIS processing of OECD and ISTAT data, 1990.

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Innovative ventures: the role of experimentation

2.1.15
Experimentation, while representing the most innovative aspect of secondary education, has yet to be adequately explored.

Data gathered for a study conducted by the Biblioteca di documentazione pedagogica (BDP — Educational documentation library): show that over 50% of upper secondary schools are carrying out at least one experimental project, including the national computing plan and the physical education plan; however, even if these two projects are excluded more than 32% of schools were involved in experimental projects in 1989-90 showing a substantial percentage increase over the 1987-90 period (+ 14 points), bearing in mind that only 18% of schools undertook experiments in 1986-87.

Upper secondary schools running at least one experiment

Type of experiment	1986–87		1988–89		1989–90	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Experiment reported	1 072	18.8	1 404	24.6	1 855	32.5
National computing plan and national physical education plan	–	–	–	–	1 019	17.8
No experiment	4 629	81.2	4 296	75.4	2 835	49.7
Total schools	**5 701**	**100.0**	**5 700**	**100.0**	**5 709**	**100.0**

Source: ISFOL processing of BDP data.

As regards the distribution of experimental activities among the various types of secondary schools, schools of a technical type continued to account for the highest percentage (42% in 1989-90); within technical schools, more than three quarters of experiments (some 76%) were in industrial and commercial schools.

Distribution of schools running experiments by type of school and directorate-general of the Ministry of Education

	1986-87		1988-89		1989-90		National computing and physical education plans	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Directorate-General for Classical and Scientific Education and Teacher Training								
Classical *lycée*	136	46.1	220	43.2	257	41.1	99	22.8
Scientific *lycée*	107	36.3	170	33.4	204	32.6	268	61.8
Primary teacher college	47	15.9	110	21.6	156	24.9	67	15.4
Nursery teacher college	5	1.6	9	1.8	9	1.4	–	–
Total	**295**	**100.0**	**509**	**100.0**	**626**	**100.0**	**434**	**100.0**
Directorate-General for Technical Education								
Commercial	126	23.7	158	26.0	254	33.6	253	68.2
Industrial	265	49.9	299	49.2	318	42.1	62	16.7
Surveyors	28	5.3	28	4.6	48	6.3	37	10.0
Agriculture	33	6.2	41	6.7	53	7.0	13	3.5
Women	27	5.1	29	4.8	30	4.0	5	1.4
Nautical	37	7.0	38	6.2	38	5.0	–	–
Tourism	12	2.2	12	2.0	12	1.6	1	0.2
Aviation	3	0.6	3	0.5	3	0.4	–	–
Total	**531**	**100.0**	**608**	**100.0**	**756**	**100.0**	**371**	**100.0**
Directorate-General for Vocational Education								
Industrial trades	122	55.4	70	28.1	132	32.0	123	55.4
Commerce	51	23.3	81	32.5	109	26.5	79	35.6
Agriculture	11	5.0	34	13.7	86	20.9	3	1.4
Women	19	8.7	32	12.9	39	9.5	7	3.1
Hotels	5	2.7	21	8.4	35	8.5	4	1.8
Marine	9	4.1	9	3.6	10	2.4	4	1.8
Building	1	0.4	1	0.4	–	–	1	0.4
Cinema and television	–	–	–	–	–	–	1	0.4
Foodstuffs	1	0.4	–	0.4	1	0.2	–	–
Total	**219**	**100.0**	**249**	**100.0**	**412**	**100.0**	**222**	**100.0**
General total	**1045**		**1366**		**1794**		**1027**	

Source: ISFOL processing of BDP data.

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The most significant aspects emerging from this analysis of experimentation are summarized below:

— experimentation is expanding with the result that innovation is being encouraged in a widespread way;

— individual educational establishments and the central authorities are promoting innovation; the fact that innovation is so widespread is because the authorities have launched most of the experimentation;

— in the breakdown by types of school, schools offering technical education — where assisted projects are easier — are most involved in experimentation, although this may be matched in percentage terms by schools of various types;

— distribution throughout Italy still lacks balance, especially in the case of large-scale experiments, but the gap between north and south is tending to decrease possibly because of the increased experimentation set out in the national computing plan.

Educational content therefore seems to be being renewed through experimentation; there does not seem, however, to be any overall strategy.

Links between school and vocational training: the 'Project 92' post-qualification

2.1.16
During the 1991-92 academic year, the classes of the first 100 vocational schools involved in the Project 92 experiment completed the three-year course.

For students who completed the experimental course and wished to build on the 'Project 92' approach to the curriculum, the Directorate-General of Vocational Education developed a training scheme in the form of supplementary two-year post-qualification schemes to be conducted in close cooperation with the regional vocational training system.

'Project 92' has the following objectives:

— to enhance curriculum content as regards academic and scientific education in the two-year period (common area) and therefore to reduce the number of hours devoted to specialist training (specialist area) during this period;

— to modify the division of hours in the third year placing greater emphasis on the specialist area, without, however, disregarding flexibility and multi-skilling;

— to develop teaching so that there is greater compatibility between cognitive requirements and training objectives (detailed study area) through plans of teaching methods formulated by each educational establishment;

— to extend training opportunities by opening up routes both within the educational system and towards the vocational training system.

Experimentation based on these guidelines makes it necessary to vary any subsequent post-qualification paths. For this reason, the new post-qualification paths which have been formulated are structured so that they provide a wide range of opportunities, such as:

— regional courses for those wishing to continue their training through short vocational courses coming under regional planning and implemented in vocational schools;

— access to the final two years of technical studies for those wishing to deepen their theoretical and cultural background or for the purposes of preparation for university education or subsequent post-certificate specializations;

— integrated post-qualification two-year courses: this option requires co-operation between vocational schools and regional vocational training, each working within their specific institutional aims.

The curriculum of the two-year post-qualification course should, in outline, take account of some basic aspects including: training objectives designed to build up a vocational culture, enhanced knowledge of arts and sciences and of technology and organization and in-depth knowledge of the working skills connected with a particular occupation.

University teaching arrangements

2.1.17
Under Law 341 of 19 November 1990 on reforms of university teaching arrangements, universities may issue the following study titles:

(a) university diploma;
(b) degree;
(c) diploma in postgraduate studies;
(d) research doctorate.

After a brief review of qualifications (b) and (c) and the research doctorate of point (d), we shall look in detail at the university diploma which represents the genuine innovation introduced by the reform and at the same time a strong link with the social, cultural and economic needs of the country and with the system operated by European establishments offering lower-level further education.

The degree is designed to provide students with appropriate higher-level knowledge of cultural, scientific and vocational methods and expertise; the law also states that it should take place in university faculties and have a duration of no less than four years and no more than six years.

University students registered by groups of degree courses — in total numbers and percentage variation

Groups of degree courses	1986–87	1987–88	1988–89	1989–90[a]	1990–91
Scientific	92 577	93 105	95 140	102 549	108 319
Medical	75 136	65 754	59 290	53 266	50 824
Engineering	121 993	126 861	129 393	150 995	167 366
Agriculture	21 106	20 716	20 515	19 776	19 930
Economics	123 001	130 575	133 466	147 578	163 017
Political-social	56 362	60 408	64 099	77 684	82 716
Law	122 736	130 593	126 420	135 798	143 494
Language and literature	154 409	147 888	153 961	164 338	177 108
Diploma	16 315	15 305	16 353	14 757	14 047
Total	**783 635**	**791 205**	**784 379**	**867 430**	**926 821**
Scientific	+ 0.4	+ 0.6	+ 2.2	+ 7.8	+ 5.6
Medical	– 7.9	– 12.5	– 9.8	– 10.2	– 4.6
Engineering	+ 3.4	+ 4.0	+ 2.0	+ 16.7	+ 10.9
Agriculture	– 5.1	– 1.8	– 1.0	– 3.6	+ 0.8
Economics	+ 5.6	+ 6.2	+ 2.2	+ 10.6	+ 10.5
Political-social	+ 19.4	+ 7.2	+ 6.1	+ 21.2	+ 6.5
Law	+ 0.8	+ 6.4	– 3.2	+ 7.4	+ 5.7
Language and literature	+ 2.5	– 4.2	+ 4.1	+ 6.7	+ 7.8
Total	**+ 2.2**	**+ 1.0**	**– 0.9**	**+ 10.6**	**+ 6.8**

[a]Provisional data.

Source: CENSIS processing of ISTAT data.

One innovation has been the establishment — whose implementation is awaited — of a specific degree course with separate options for the cultural and vocational training of nursery and primary school teachers based on the regulations covering their legal status.

The diploma in postgraduate studies is awarded after the degree at the end of a course lasting no less than two years intended to train specialists in particular professional sectors at postgraduate schools.

An innovative aspect of the law is the establishment of a specific school of postgraduate studies structured in the form of options to which the faculties and departments involved contribute. In the particular case of the current teacher-training faculties, the universities provide the training, including teaching practice, of secondary school teachers as set out in the regulations on their legal status.

The most innovative aspect of the law is, however, the establishment of the lower level university diploma course.

On the basis of Law 341 of 19 November 1990 on reforms of university teaching arrangements (published in the Official Gazette of the Italian Republic of 23 November 1990), this diploma:

(a) is offered in faculties and has a duration or no less than two and no more than three years;

(b) should correspond to the terms of EEC regulations on lower-level university diplomas;

(c) is intended to provide students with appropriate knowledge of cultural and scientific methods and expertise so that they may achieve the educational level required by specific professional sectors (Article 2).

Teaching (Article 12) is given by permanent lecturers and researchers in the same scientific or subject area or in allied areas employed by the same faculty.

Provision is also made for the extension of contract work to university diploma courses, i.e. the use of experts in subjects who are offered teaching posts for fixed periods.

Tutoring (Article 13) is to be established within a year of the date of entry into force of Law 341/90.

It is designed to:

(a) guide and assist students throughout their studies;

(b) make them active participants in the training process;

(c) remove obstacles to the profitable attendance of courses possibly by initiatives in line with the needs, attitudes and requirements of individual students.

Law 341/90 sets out two main methods of financing the creation and conduct of university diploma courses:

(1) direct aid from the State: funding of the current portion of the plan as set out in Article 17[1] of Law 245 of 7 August 1990;

(2) aid from other forms of funding including:

— funds from conventions with public authorities, especially regions, as part of their powers over vocational training;
— conventions with private agencies;
— possible changes to students' registration fees;
— payments from the European Social Fund.

University of the Third Age

2.1.18
Universities of the Third Age were set up in 1982 in response to the needs expressed by the elderly population for information on aspects connected with health, upgraded vocational skills allowing them to rejoin the workforce, and improved cultural knowledge to enable better use of leisure time.

There are currently over 300 relatively comparable establishments throughout Italy; in some cases these are centres for permanent education providing services for a broader range of users.

According to the two national federations which coordinate most establishments, registrations increased to over 75 000 in the 1989/90 academic year. These data, together with the other initiatives promoted by private enterprises and unions, highlight how this phenomenon is growing.

Detailed statistics are not as yet available on the overall size of this population. There is, however, a clear predominance of women and people with medium-to-high academic qualifications.

Training establishments are distributed mainly in the northern regions of Italy with 60%, in comparison with 24% in the Centre and 16% in the South. In regions such as Lombardy, the Veneto and the Province of Trento, there is a trend towards a more comprehensive distribution with training reaching users outside large urban centres as well.

Registrations at some Universities of the Third Age

	Turin		Vicenza		Ferrara		Bari	
	AV	% Var	AV	% Var	AV	% Var	AV	% Var
1984/85	4 042		201		340		130	
1987/88	4 847	19.9	279	38.8	444	30.6	194	49.2
1990/91	5 296	9.3	1 163[a]	316.8	888	100.0	220	13.4

[a]Including affiliated establishments

Source: CENSIS survey based on Federuni and UNITRE data, 1991.

Quantitative aspects of the educational system — the school population

2.1.19
Trends in the school population reflect Italy's demographic trends with a decrease in numbers in nursery, primary and lower secondary schools and a continuing increase in the number of students in upper secondary and university education.

According to CENSIS report No XXIV (1991) numbers in upper secondary education are continuing to grow and have increased by almost 74 000: from almost 2 779 000 to 2 853 000 (+ 2.7%).

Diachronic analysis of the data relating to school attendance shows that the impact of population changes is having an effect on the size of the school population leading to its gradual contraction.

Shrinking numbers of pupils in the first three levels of education (nursery, primary and lower secondary) is a trend which seems to be typical of the development of the educational system over the last 10 years and which shows no sign of diminishing.

Analysis of the most recent data shows that the 5 320 000 pupils attending compulsory education in 1990-91 represent a decrease of some 212 000 over the previous year.

Up to now, the decreasing population does not seem to have affected upper secondary education where there has always been a substantial increase in the total number of students registered (some 50 000 or more every year); in the last year the increase in the number of pupils in upper secondary education seems to have been much smaller (less than 10 000).

Total numbers registered in the education system (1991)

The school population (according to estimates in the 25th CENSIS report on the Italy's social situation, 1991) will exceed 11 million, equivalent to 19% of the total population, broken down as follows:

School type	Number of pupils
Nursery	1 552 694
Primary	3 055 883
Lower secondary	2 265 947
Higher secondary	2 860 983
School total	**9 735 507**
University	1 334 821
Overall total	**11 070 328**

Synoptic table of trends in the State and private education system

Type	School units	Classes	Total pupils	Registrations for year I	School-leaving certificates
Nursery					
1983-84	29 473	69 030	1 695 911	–	–
1984-85	29 131	66 168	1 678 833	–	–
1985-86	28 943	65 457	1 660 986	–	–
1986-87	28 788	66 138	1 632 284	–	–
1987-88	28 406	67 105	1 586 850	–	–
1988-89	28 293	67 804	1 579 504	–	–
1989-90[a]	28 038	67 633	1 566 364	–	–
1990-91[a]	27 716	67 026	1 552 694	–	–
Primary					
1983-84	28 727	247 223	4 062 756	708 211	858 212
1984-85	28 244	239 873	3 904 143	680 018	851 003
1985-86	27 748	231 099	3 703 108	638 628	814 440
1986-87	27 231	222 901	3 518 316	611 353	769 692
1987-88	26 643	215 039	3 370 709	598 602	728 296
1988-89	25 888	207 044	3 241 810	590 770	701 684
1989-90[a]	25 163	199 970	3 140 113	576 729	658 696
1990-91[a]	24 268	192 738	3 055 883	565 288	–
Lower secondary					
1983-84	10 050	132 038	2 815 922	1 008 709	824 757
1984-85	10 041	131 051	2 788 584	992 263	834 068
1985-86	10 028	129 893	2 756 577	970 710	816 923
1986-87	10 021	128 237	2 704 940	938 597	819 304
1987-88	10 023	127 099	2 613 638	901 359	811 030
1988-89	10 021	123 646	2 505 953	849 333	786 821
1989-90[a]	10 021	119 587	2 392 130	805 036	763 135
1990-91[a]	9 986	114 434	2 265 947	757 186	–
Upper secondary[b]					
1983-84	7 546	106 015	2 508 800	715 889	488 563
1984-85	7 573	112 876	2 550 147	726 538	491 881
1985-86	7 587	112 678	2 605 002	751 259	491 491
1986-87	7 668	116 070	2 657 262	759 685	492 300
1987-88	7 702	125 054	2 719 334	766 763	511 309
1988-89	7 825	133 632	2 797 804	781 178	517 035
1989-90[a]	7 879	134 056	2 853 002	771 450	521 476
1990-91[a]	7 910	134 193	2 860 983	747 050	–
University[c]					
1983-84	316	–	1 054 768	256 611	73 208
1984-85	323	–	1 106 661	253 778	72 148
1985-86	314	–	1 113 175	243 126	75 810
1986-87	318	–	1 125 635	246 942	77 869
1987-88	331	–	1 153 298	260 365	80 974
1988-89	331	–	1 222 765	280 271	87 714
1989-90[a]	335	–	1 291 991	299 841	89 196
1990-91[a]	366	–	1 334 821	312 814 [d]	–

[a] Provisional data.
[b] The 'school-leaving certificates' column includes upper secondary leaving certificates and certificates from State vocational schools and art schools and certificates from teacher-training schools.
[c] In the case of universities the number of faculties is entered in the 'school units' column and the number of graduates in the 'school-leaving certificate' column.
[d] Enrolments.

Source: CENSIS processing of ISTAT data.

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Forecasts of student dynamics in State schools

	Students 1989–90	Students 2002–2003		Variation 2003–1990		% Variation 2003–1990	
Nursery							
North	205 020	159 003		– 46 017		– 22.4	
Centre	154 492	128 580		– 25 912		– 16.8	
South	452 948	408 856		– 44 092		– 9.7	
Total Italy	**812 460**	**696 439**		**– 116 021**		**– 14.3**	
Primary							
North	1 067 163	853 566		– 213 597		– 20.0	
Centre	478 397	385 431		– 92 966		– 19.4	
South	1 340 418	1 188 706		– 151 712		– 11.3	
Total Italy	**2 885 978**	**2 427 703**		**– 458 275**		**– 15.9**	
Lower secondary							
North	844 735	555 078		– 289 657		– 34.3	
Centre	401 486	275 295		– 126 191		– 31.4	
South	1 041 551	847 081		– 194 470		– 18.7	
Total Italy	**2 287 772**	**1 677 454**		**– 610 318**		**– 26.7**	
Upper secondary		Scenario A[a]	Scenario B[a]	Scenario A[a]	Scenario B[a]	Scenario A[a]	Scenario B[a]
North	1 046 351	608 793	652 278	– 437 558	– 394 073	– 41.8	– 37.7
Centre	527 943	297 397	318 640	– 230 546	– 209 303	– 43.7	– 9.7
South	1 019 274	894 026	957 886	– 125 248	– 61 388	– 12.3	– 6.0
Total Italy	**2 593 568**	**1 800 216**	**1 928 804**	**– 793 352**	**– 664 764**	**– 30.6**	**– 25.6**

[a]Scenario A assumes school attendance of 70%.
Scenario B school attendance of 75%.

Source: CENSIS processing of ISTAT data.

Development of full-time education

2.1.20
In 1951, three quarters (75%) of the school population was attending primary school, 14% lower secondary, 7% upper secondary and 4% university. Data for 1990-91 shows that at present only one third (34%) of the school population is attending primary school, 25% lower secondary school, around 31% higher secondary schools and 10% university.

At university level, the number of enrolments and overall registrations continues to increase. The rate of transfer from upper secondary education to university shows the increased tendency of those passing upper secondary examinations to continue on to university courses.

Rate of university take-up

	%
1980-81	72.5
1983-84	68.3
1984-85	67.0
1985-86	63.6
1986-87	63.7
1987-88	67.5
1988-89	69.1
1989-90 (provisional data)	71.9

Source: CENSIS survey, 1990.

The most significant aspect of these data is not, however, the quantity of the increase but its quality: the increase is due to students from schools other than *lycées* who would have been more likely, in the past, to enter the labour market directly.

Education supply

2.1.21
The scenario for the 1990s seems to have undergone substantial change: new and significant developments seem to be taking place from the point of view of education supply:

— the reform of primary schools which has already taken place;
— the experimental introduction of the new two-year courses;
— the extension of experimentation in upper secondary education;
— the autonomy of universities following on from the creation of the new Ministry of Universities;
— the reform of university teaching arrangements which has introduced the university diploma, i.e. 'short degrees', tutoring and the degree for teachers;
— the proliferation of private vocational training initiatives and the structure of public initiatives.

Education demand

2.1.22
Education demand has also changed significantly in recent years:

— the rate of transition to secondary education has increased from 80 to 87% in the space of four years (1986-90), while overall numbers in secondary education have increased from 56.6 to 65.3%;
— the rate of transition to university has increased from 63.7 to 70.3% and graduate numbers from 75 000 to 87 700.

Training needs

2.1.23
Analysis of the training market as set out in the 25th CENSIS report on Italy's social situation (1991) highlights the need to read training needs in a multi-dimensional way so as to be able to subdivide the various needs which relate to very different bands of users.

As a result of this, segmented matrices of needs have been formulated and are shown in the following three tables which show 'current coverage of needs', any 'trends' from the situations observed and lastly 'possible action policies', also pinpointing areas where there is integration in the supply between levels, systems and providers, whether public or private.

These tables summarize the Italian education system with respect to three macro-segments:

— primary needs relating to compulsory education to the age of 14;
— secondary needs relating to upper secondary education and vocational training to the age of 19;
— tertiary needs corresponding to university education.

As regards the band of primary needs, the tables show that compulsory education was attended in 1990-91 by over 5.3 million people. The level of coverage of needs seems adequate overall; the pre-primary, primary and lower secondary stages of compulsory education also absorb the largest proportion of public resources for education, more than LIT 20 000 billion, of which staff expenses accounted for 99%.

The band of secondary needs has a lower coverage level in terms both of public resources invested, some LIT 10 000 billion for over four million young people attending post-compulsory education (taking into account school, vocational training and on-the-job training) and in terms of the partial lack of facilities and support services.

The higher education system representing the band of tertiary needs shows that further action and change is required, for instance as a result of the substantial growth in numbers entering university (70%) and the high drop-out rate. While 40% of those who initially register for university courses complete their studies, 60% of the initial intake either drop out and/or repeat years.

There is also a trend towards greater internationalization of university curricula and courses. New management and financial autonomy is also becoming advisable for universities.

Analysis of critical aspects of the educational system: school drop-out rates

2.1.24
In Italy 40 000 young people (*Source:* ISFOL, 'Relazione sullo stato della formazione professionale in Italia', 20.6.1991) leave school before obtaining the lower secondary school certificate (6% of the total) and a further 25% leave upper secondary school during the first two years.

In practice, (according to CENSIS estimates in report No 25/1991) for every 100 students registered in the first year of primary school, 95 complete compulsory education, 80 register with upper secondary schools, 49 complete upper secondary education, 33 register with universities and 10 obtain degrees.

Segmentation of training needs by user bands, trends and possible policies

(a) Compulsory education

■ Structural indicators ▲ Expenditure indicators ● Areas of action

Primary needs band

Current coverage of needs/Structural indicators	***Trends in needs (individual and collective)***	***Possible policies***
▲Impact of lower secondary staff costs on total expenditure: 99.5%	▲Need for more investment in teaching support services in lower secondary education	●Measures to make full use of surplus human resources (teaching and non-teaching staff) in lower secondary schools
▲Average cost per pupil (in million LIT): primary school 3.2; compulsory lower secondary 4.1	■Increased demand for vocational education in lower secondary education	●National plan for school-building and teaching services
▲Expenditure on lower secondary education: LIT 9 590.7 billion Expenditure on primary education: LIT 9 579.7 billion Expenditure on nursery education: LIT 2 521.3 billion	■Increased numbers in education between the ages of 14 and 16	●Upgrading of the vocational nature of lower secondary education
■Total users in bottom segment (nursery, primary, lower secondary): 6.8 million	■Increased demand for high-quality facilities and services in primary and lower secondary schools	●Measures to raise school attendance levels in the 14 to 16 age group to European standards
■Percentage of young people aged 14 to 25 leaving with only the compulsory lower secondary certificate: 13.5%	■Increased demand for education for infants	●Personalized programmes to curb the drop-out rate from compulsory education
■School attendance at age 15: Germany 100.0 %, France 95.4%, Italy 82.0%		
■Percentage enrolment at vocational training centres by area: North 73.4%, Centre 14.4%, South 12.2%		
■Rate of repeats of year 1 of lower secondary education: 11.1%		
■Drop-out rate from compulsory lower secondary education: 2%		
■Ratio of pupils per class in nursery schools: 23.2%		
■Attendance of nursery schools: 91.6%		

⬇⬇ Auditing of needs and policies
⬇ Evaluation of efficacy and efficiency

(b) Upper secondary education and vocational training, apprenticeship

Primary needs band

Actual coverage of needs/Structural indicators	***Trends in needs (individual and collective)***	***Possible policies***
▲Average expenditure per upper secondary pupil: LIT 3.2 million	▲Need for more investment in extramural activities	●Higher registration rates because of upgraded services in upper secondary
▲Average expenditure per VT student (in million LIT): North 4.2, South 7.1	▲Reduction of expenditure on staff of upper secondary schools	●Guidance plans, programmes and services for young people
■Total users of secondary band (secondary education, VT, apprenticeship and employment-training contracts): LIT 4.2 million	■Need for action against dropping out in upper secondary education	●Introduction of financial and organizational autonomy in upper secondary schools
■Percentage of pupils in year 5 of upper secondary education considering facilities and teaching support services to be inadequate: 29%	■Great need for upgrading of VT in the South	●Integrated action programmes involving schools, VT and production system based on EC schemes
■Rate of repeats of year 1 of upper secondary education: 11.8%	■Substantial demand for quality services and buildings for upper secondary education	●Industrial nature of upper secondary services (standardized in Italy)
■Percentage of vocational training centre registrations by area: North 73.4%, Centre 14.4%, South 12.2 %	■Increased demand for secondary education	●Control of VT expenditure depending on quality of services and the training product
■Percentage of vocational training centre registrations out of total population aged 15 to 22: 4.4%		●Upgrading of training for young people on apprenticeship contracts (at regional level)
■Rate of drop-out from year 1 of upper secondary education: 17.9%		
■School attendance at age 17: Germany 81.7%, France 79.3%, Italy 55%		
■Percentage of upper secondary students on double or triple shifts: Piedmont 0.7 %, Sardinia 11.2%, Campania 3.2%, Italy 1.3%		

⬇⬇ Auditing of needs and policies
⬇ Evaluation of efficacy and efficiency

(c) University

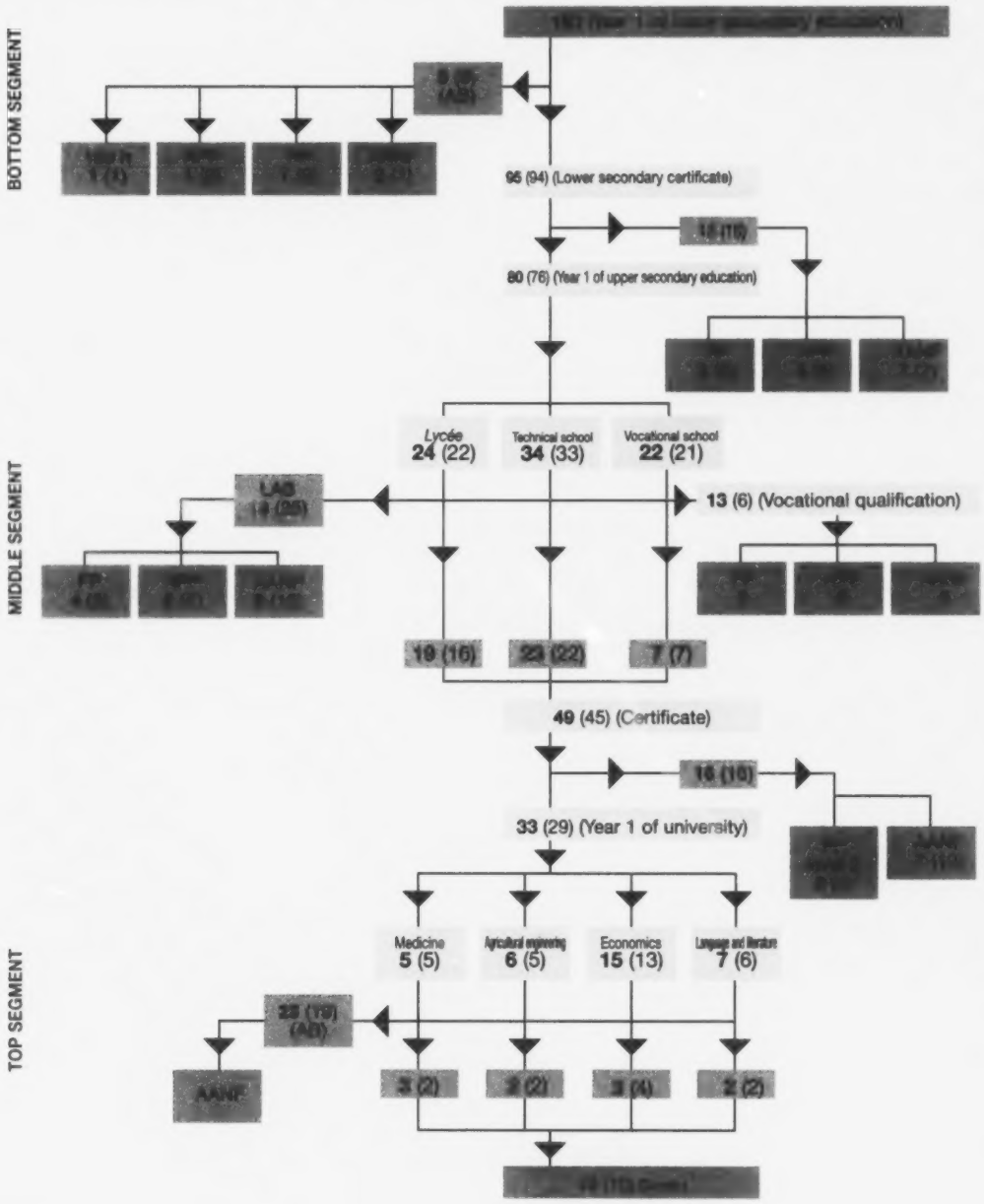
Tertiary needs band

Current coverage of needs/Structural indicators	Trends in needs (individual and collective)	Possible policies
▲Percentage of total university expenditure on teaching: 69.0 %	▲Upgrading of assistance services for the right to study	●Restructuring and reorganization of regional services for the right to study at university
▲Average expenditure per university student: LIT 7.3 million		
■Total users in tertiary band: 1.3 million	■Increased demand for graduates from enterprise	●Action programme and cooperation betwees university and production system (enterprise)
■Percentage of those registered at university taking part in Erasmus programme: 0.3 %	■Increased demand for support services for university teaching	●Action to reorganize teaching support and university guidance services
■Percentage of university students dissatisfied by guidance services: 87.0 %	■Increased demand for university guidance	●Introduction of systems of financial assistance with university education
■Percentage of students willing to pay higher fees for better services: 76.1 %	■Increased demand for more international university curricula	●Initiatives to make the university system more international and support and promote EU initiatives and action programmes
■Percentage of graduates out of total registrations: 36.6 %	■Increased demand for university education	●Financial and administrative autonomy of universitiies
■Number of people registering at university per 1 000 inhabitants: Germany (27.8), France (20.6), Italy (21.8)		
■School attendance at age 19: Germany 45.5 %, France 46.4 %, Italy 34.0 %		
■Rate of university take-up: 70.3 %		

⬇ ⬇ Auditing of needs and policies
⬇ Evaluation of efficacy and efficiency

Source: CENSIS processing of ISTAT and Ministry of Education data.

Table of flows in the Italian education system (1988-89)*



Key:

AB	Drop-outs
APP	Apprenticeship
FP	Vocational training
AANF	Other non-training activities
Lycée	Classical, scientific, language, art secondary school, primary teacher training college
(...)	Figures in brackets for the year 1987/88

(*) The 'contemporary' method has been used to calculate flows based on data from the 1988-89 academic year.

Flows, streams and routes within the educational system

2.1.25
The data shown refer to the 1988-89 academic year; in order to provide a reference point, data on 1987-88 are shown in brackets to compare the last two sets of available information.

With regard to the period of compulsory schooling (ages 6 to 14), it is clear that the majority of pupils succeed in obtaining the lower secondary certificate (95/100). The drop-out rate seems to have fallen slightly compared with the previous year (from 6 to 5 drop-outs), although the number of children who leave school choosing non-training activities has increased (from 1 to 2). Vocational training and apprenticeship do not manage to absorb all these young people (percentage reduction from 5 to 3). The problem of dropping out during compulsory education is therefore a problem linked to social and economic disadvantage. In order to re-integrate these young people, motivational factors need to be taken into account, especially through personalized methods of action.

Of those who complete the first cycle of compulsory education (95), 15 leave the educational system (four less than in 1987-88), but only 3 register for vocational training courses. This points to a growing inability on the part of the regional training system to offer suitable training routes for young people interested in initial level courses, i.e. after the lower secondary education certificate (6 in 1987-88). The trend as regards the most quoted training choice seems for the majority of young people (80/100 as against 76 in the previous survey) to be towards upper secondary education. The problem of dropping out is decreasing in upper secondary education: 18/80 young people dropped out as against 25 in the previous year. In the area of vocational education more young people are becoming qualified after the first two or three years of the course (over 7 more). The vocational training route is less able to absorb young people of this age group (only 4 of the 18 young people dropping out of secondary education).

Comparing these data with the previous year it can be seen that there is a significant growth in the demand for post-upper-secondary certificate vocational courses which, organized by the regional training system, make use, for their operation, of grants from the European Social Fund (proportionally 5 more certificate holders).

As a trend, the vocational system seems therefore to provide better and more up-to-date opportunities in the post-certificate area. Young people registering for university are increasing (4 more than in the previous data) but the rate of those failing to graduate is very high (only 10 out of 33 graduate).

These failures are a handicap to the system especially when considering the major need for intellectual resources; the recent introduction of short degree courses seems to be addressing this situation and should make it possible to offer young people genuinely different choices and routes.

Economic aspects of the educational system

2.1.26
Data on public investment

In 1989, expenditure on education and culture totalled LIT 68 092 600 billion, representing 5.7% of the GDP, a drop of 0.2% over 1988; LIT 50 148 billion were spent by the State, LIT 12 358 billion by communes, LIT 3 058 billion by provinces and LIT 2 527 billion by regions, showing an overall percentage increase in expenditure on education and culture of 41.1% in comparison with 1986.

The State accounted for 73.6% of public resources earmarked for education and culture (+0.5% over 1986), while communes absorbed 18.2%, provinces 4.5% and regions 3.7% (–0.6% over 1986).

Breakdown of public expenditure on education, culture and training between the State and local authorities

Year	Percentage breakdown of expenditure				
	State	Regions	Provinces	Communes	Total
1986	73.1	4.3	4.0	18.6	100.0
1987	72.6	3.6	4.5	19.3	100.0
1988	73.7	3.7	4.3	18.3	100.0
1989	73.6[a]	3.7[b]	4.5[b]	18.2[b]	100.0

[a] Provisional figures.
[b] Estimated figures.

Source: CENSIS processing of ISTAT data.

State expenditure on education and culture has gradually increased as a proportion of overall State expenditure, public investment has accounted for a smaller percentage of GDP, there has been a substantial increase (over 40%) in per capita expenditure on education and culture and expenditure by provinces and communes has been consolidated and reflected by a change in the size of regional expenditure.

In addition to an increase in expenditure by the Ministry of Education there has been a relative but substantial change in expenditure on education and culture by many other ministries and departments.

In the three-year period 1987-89, expenditure by the President of the Council of Ministers (+67.7%), the Ministry of Cultural and Environmental Assets (+58.8%) and the Ministry of Labour and Social Security (+267.3%) has increased.

Current expenditure by the Ministry of Education on the various levels of education

Final figures in billion LIT and percentage variation 1988-89 — summary indicators

Level of education	1989 Expenditure LIT current	% Variation 1988/89 LIT current	% Variation 1986/89 LIT constant	Personal expenditure as % of total expenditure
General and indivisible expenditure[a]	8 103.4	– 4.4	8.1	97.1
Nursery	2 235.8	14.4	26.3	96.2
Primary	9 362.3	8.2	17.6	98.6
Lower secondary[b]	9 081.2	11.5	18.5	99.4
Classical, scientific teacher training[b]	2 065.5	22.1	35.8	98.1
Technical[b,c]	3 807.0	22.8	28.5	97.3
Vocational[b,c]	1 566.1	7.2	14.9	96.7
Art[b,c]	607.8	19.0	29.3	95.5
University	4 801.5	– 20.3	– 3.2	83.7
Total	**41 630.6**	**4.1**	**14.2**	**96.3**

[a] Includes expenditure on general services, educational institutes, schools for the deaf and dumb, private lower secondary education, cultural exchanges, building and furnishings.

[b] The figures include a proportion of expenditure on physical education proportional to the number of classes in the individual levels of State education.

[c] The breakdown of final expenditure relating to the technical education heading which refers to both technical and vocational education is made proportionally to the division, agreed administratively by the two services, of the expenditure entered in the draft budgets (and in some cases in the final budgets).

Source: CENSIS processing of Ministry of Education figures — final balances for various years.

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2.2 The vocational training system

The historical evolution of vocational training

2.2.1
Vocational education became important whenever and wherever it was necessary to pass on trades, offices and workshops which could not be run without techniques and notions known solely to practitioners themselves who were custodians of the secrets of the trade. Between the medieval period and the end of the 18th century the guilds provided a forum for and protected these experts: liberal arts guilds which offered training in the humanities and arts and crafts guilds from which professions and trades emerged and took shape and gradually acquired social importance and scientific and occupational contents.

This explains why the institutions of the craft workshop school and apprenticeship, set up to meet the needs of these groups, play such an important part in Italian vocational culture.

In the 16th and 17th centuries, religious orders and communities in Italy devised various types of activity, assistance and education for young people.

It was, however, the industrial revolution at the beginning of the 19th century, with the introduction of machines and the exploitation of energy produced by steam, which brought about radical changes and laid the foundations for the development of modern vocational training. The new operating machines replaced the hand which held tools directly; new trades were generated — albeit from old roots — as part of a pre-capitalist organization of labour which separated tasks and positions and often created disruptive conflicts. Workers needed to be able to adapt to the technological and production innovations which were being introduced at an ever faster rate.

The response to these complex demands has been fragmented in terms of both geography and content, in relation to deep-seated differences in the growth of industrialization and ensuing social structures. Before the unification of Italy in 1861 and for a long time thereafter, various local initiatives were set in motion to provide answers to the demands made by the new methods of production, new technologies and new labour markets.

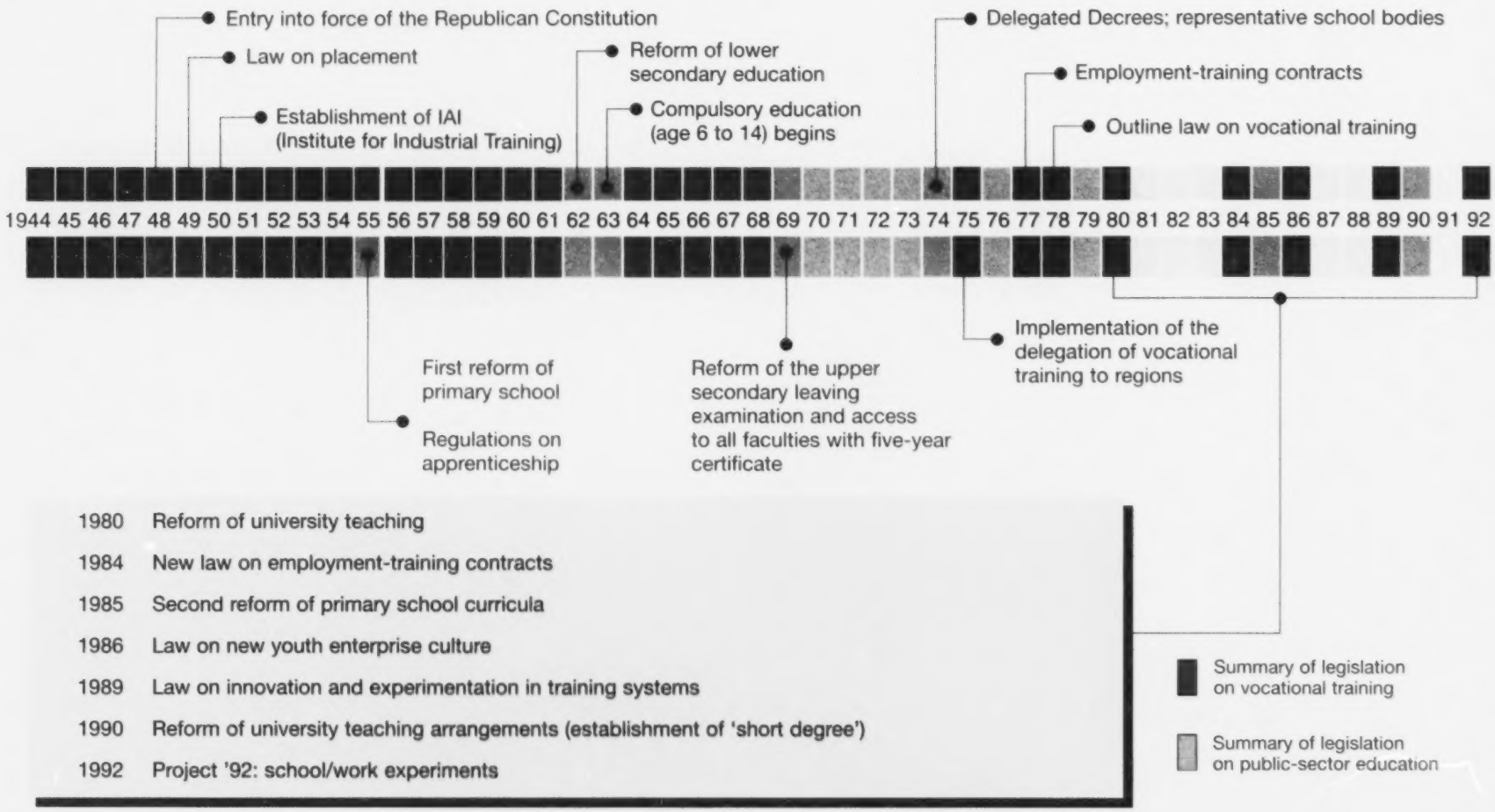
It is difficult to provide a precise definition of vocational education: there were no institutional and statutory schemes and almost everyone gained their own experience by taking events abroad, where industrialization had taken place some decades previously, as a starting point.

In this context, the main approaches to the problems still raised to some extent today define the new training requirements, differentiated by the various training providers:

- education motivated by deep-seated religious ideals and underpinned by a strong spirit of love for one's neighbour;

- philanthropic patronage attempting to meet emerging social needs and the concern shown by individual industrialists, worried by social aspects and interested in ensuring a qualified workforce for their own factories;

Development of the Italian system of education and vocational training (Italy)


Entry into force of the Republican Constitution
Law on placement
Establishment of IAI (Institute for Industrial Training)
Reform of lower secondary education
Compulsory education (age 6 to 14) begins
Delegated Decrees; representative school bodies
Employment-training contracts
Outline law on vocational training
1944 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 53 54 55 56 57 58 59 60 61 62 63 64 65 66 67 68 69 70 71 72 73 74 75 76 77 78 79 80 81 82 83 84 85 86 87 88 89 90 91 92
First reform of primary school
Regulations on apprenticeship
Reform of the upper secondary leaving examination and access to all faculties with five-year certificate
Implementation of the delegation of vocational training to regions
1980 Reform of university teaching
1984 New law on employment-training contracts
1985 Second reform of primary school curricula
1986 Law on new youth enterprise culture
1989 Law on innovation and experimentation in training systems
1990 Reform of university teaching arrangements (establishment of 'short degree')
1992 Project '92: school/work experiments
Summary of legislation on vocational training
Summary of legislation on public-sector education

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- workers' and craft associations and mutual help often supported by local authorities or municipalities which set up important schools of crafts and trades throughout most of the country, particularly in some northern and central regions, as a way of meeting the needs of industrialization and employment;

- public ventures promoted by individual States and after unification by the chambers of commerce or directly by communes which developed technical education and schools of art and design in particular, in some cases giving a royal seal to or publicizing private or institutional ventures (true, for instance, of many industrial technical institutes and the technical schools).

The period after the Second World War with peace and the re-establishment of democracy can be divided into two: the period up to the creation of the regions in 1970 and the period after the beginning of the 1970s when they began to exercise their legislative and administrative powers over vocational training.

The rebuilding and industrialization which led to the major economic boom of the 1950s and the situation of the 1960s began during the first period. This industrialization generated substantial changes and the environment in which workers were required to perform their work was no longer that of the prewar period. Mechanization invaded many fields, physics and chemistry progressed at an ever faster pace, production methods continued to develop and were also applied to agriculture and the technical needs of production increased. These factors meant that employment opportunities for generic workers continued to decline in favour of skilled and specialist workers, especially in the north.

The attraction of boom zones caused enormous numbers of migrants with no specific training to move chiefly from the south to the north to find jobs. The main strategic centres of attraction and demand were the large mechanical engineering factories which soon became an immense reservoir for a dynamic craft sector able rapidly to transform generic workers into experienced mechanics, draughtsmen, vehicle assemblers, textile operators, carpenters, furniture makers and so on.

The changes brought about by industrialization led to the creation by leading Italian and international concerns of the Istituto per l'Addestramento dell'Industria (IAI — Institute for industrial training) at the beginning of the 1950s; the IAI was active for most of the 1960s and its main task was to disseminate new methods and techniques for training personnel, especially company managers, throughout the fabric of industry in Italy and to produce documentation and journals.

Workers' unions made vocational training into a collective bargaining issue and the agencies administering vocational training, whether subsidized by the State and including vocational schools, or private and operating with complete autonomy, adapted to the new situations and attempted to satisfy the new needs by offering more appropriate courses and modifying their curricula.

This was followed by the second period which is still in progress, i.e. the electronic revolution whose most visible features are computerization and the advanced automation of production processes. The concept of industry began to be seen in new terms during the 1970s: people began to speak of a post-industrial society and attempts were made to anticipate and cope with the major changes on the horizon.

Technological and organizational changes in the production system led to far-reaching modifications of workforce composition and occupational skill contents.

This highlighted the need for an appropriately briefed environment culturally prepared for innovation and likely to ease the introduction of sophisticated scientific and technological advances and different organizational formulas.

The 1970s and in particular the 1980s opened or re-opened, for reasons which will be examined in greater detail in the third section, problems which seemed to have been resolved.

Enormous problems connected with labour relationships and industrial relations arose during the 1970s: these are remembered as the 'crisis years'.

Developments such as industrial streamlining, training contracts, schemes to increase youth employment and measures for particular sectors or groups had to be tackled.

Employers' and workers' associations had to be made responsible and their full cooperation obtained if operations were to be successful, especially in cases involving major local imbalances between labour supply and demand.

When collective agreements were renewed in 1979 the content and levels of rights to information were further extended and training became one of the issues on which the parties informed one another both before and after.

The five main industrial agreements (private and public heavy engineering, private and public chemicals, textiles), which relate to about two million workers, placed considerable stress on the training and retraining needs of workers and, especially in the public-sector agreements, the detailed coverage of this subject bore witness to the serious intent of the parties.

Law 285 of 1 June 1977, 'Measures on youth employment', which brought together measures intended to promote increased youth employment, opened a new and important chapter in the recent history of vocational training: the 'employment-training contract'.

Important also were those ventures launched at local level by regions or communes, consortia or provinces either independently or implementing State provisions on youth employment or designed to create and provide new opportunities or jobs for young people using funds from the ESF.

In terms of training and employment, there are two fundamental criteria for funding training schemes: training must be targeted on the creation and development of employment opportunities and alternance training is seen as an indispensable means of guaranteeing the effectiveness of action in terms of both training and employment.

The regional policies and ventures intended to promote youth employment which have been put into practice up to now are part of this movement and are the main way of implementing measures intended to support apprenticeship (craft apprentices and apprentices in the other production sectors) or national laws on youth employment which required the participation of the regions for their enactment, as in the case of Laws 285/77 and 863/84 offering incentives to employers entering into employment-training contracts.

These measures are intended to promote the creation of economically viable jobs through small firms operating at local level and youth cooperatives and through the development of socially useful services (job creation). The regions and local authorities play an important part in this area, meeting start-up and launch needs and providing training in management and administration techniques and technical and financial assistance.

Managers and employees in the sector are convinced that training should be upgraded in order to abide by EEC regulations on schemes receiving European Social Fund assistance and on action coordinated by the Structural Funds. For this purpose training schemes must also be connected with regional planning in order to take account of the *de jure* and *de facto* situations which each region can autonomously decide.

Vocational training: overall picture

2.2.2
The regulations covering the training system as a whole are set out in Law 845 of 21 December 1978 which delegates the management and supervision of training to the regions.

Training supply: variety and multiplicity of 'suppliers' in the training market

2.2.3
Vocational training in Italy is anything but static: there is a wide range of training experiments and ventures showing considerable vitality and potential.

History continues: just as various policies and schools of 'vocational culture' were formulated and put into practice in the past, there are nowadays many protagonists and people who formulate and offer training routes.

The following are currently involved in vocational training in Italy:

— the State (more precisely the Ministry of Labour and Social Security), through research ventures, experimental projects, special projects in areas where there are major local imbalances between supply and demand, training of trainers through conventions with the regions or delegated directly to ISFOL. ISFOL, a technical satellite of the Ministry of Labour offering assistance to the regions, coordinates research and experimentation, evaluates innovation plans for teaching systems, processes and methods and supervizes special EU projects;

— the regions, through the multiplicity of schemes offered by their own or by convention-regulated centres;

— enterprises (in particular major enterprises and to a smaller extent medium-sized enterprises) which run training schemes for new recruits (apprenticeship, employment-training contracts), offer refresher and retraining schemes covering aspects linked to the introduction of new technology to people already in employment and pay particular attention to the development of managerial skills and middle management;

— the private training industry, including agencies, associations, specialist research offices, consultants, etc., who explore and operate in specific market areas using new methods and skills and offer a vast range of opportunities and a vast quantity of services for clients, providing training opportunities which are very much in keeping with the labour market although not always of comparable quality;

— professional associations which offer initial or continuing training schemes as a service for their members, placing considerable emphasis on specialist training and making their members aware of social and economic changes;

— trade unions and employers' associations which have for some time been helping to shape active labour and employment policy in the area of vocational training and retraining and which, through their various agencies, are direct protagonists of changes to the significance of work;

— technology producers offering courses linked to the sale and installation of new instrumentation;

— enterprise consortia which offer training to their members and third parties.

Features of training supply

2.2.4
Training supply is currently going through a transitional period where old ideas continue to exist alongside new and as yet uncertain developments which are finding it difficult to gain a foothold.

The three main institutional protagonists of training supply are, however, fairly dynamic.

The main area of interest is the post-secondary certificate whose design and planning has involved cooperation by various institutions (schools, vocational training, universities). The regional system is showing a trend towards change in three areas: the predominance of initial training, a shift towards the higher level and a diversification of schemes with greater attention being paid to adults.

The regional system still needs to implement planning and evaluation criteria; regional public management consequently seems to possess skills which are more of an administrative and managerial type than of a technical and planning type.

From the point of view of teaching methods, the gradual abandonment of the school model should lead to the widespread adoption of the alternance system and the use of cyclical and modular methods in training design.

It should be borne in mind lastly that the well-established quality of the enterprise system belongs in practice to the culture of major industry. Small and medium-sized businesses have more experience of mixed (study/work) contracts.

Changes in training demand

2.2.5
The following trends are currently taking place in the training demand:

— an increase in the quantity of the demand resulting from changes in Italy's social and economic position (ranging from redeployment needs to increasing service sector activity and the impact of technological innovation and from the increasing importance of scientific and technological research to new cultural needs in the areas of relationships and organization). The training demand is being transformed at an increasing speed and entailing constant change, diversification and restructuring as regards changes in occupational skills and job structures and tasks;

— demand is diversifying and becoming more complex in the same way as the people asking for training and is being matched by a multiplicity of training suppliers (not just offering formal training according to institutional rules);

— the demand for formal training is slackening off thereby raising problems which will have to be dealt with.

Social demand for training: current users

2.2.6
The following target groups are major users of training ventures:

- young people leaving compulsory education or dropping out of upper secondary schooling or young people who complete compulsory schooling with difficulty and have problems finding jobs or new types of study (see diagram of flows);

  specific vocational training projects and school and vocational guidance structures are essential for these young people;

- young (and not so young) people employed in insecure jobs: as work becomes increasingly deskilled these people may be seen as 'occupationally blocked' (as is the case, for example, with many apprenticeship or employment-training contracts). While there is a substantial demand for vocational training of this type, existing training facilities are often not very flexible with the result that this training demand often remains unsatisfied;

- young people with little education wishing to improve their standards within a job: this demand does not in practice receive any answer of an institutional or systematic type;

- women who return to the labour market after bringing up families or periods of informal work: these women need vocational guidance and training; training facilities should endeavour to find 'different' ways of tackling the specific problems of remedial training especially in the area of initial education;

- adults exposed to risks of marginalization from production processes who have relatively low levels of education, received their basic training long ago and have little ability to adapt to change;

- immigrants with work problems; and therefore problems with vocational and technical training and basic knowledge of the Italian language who need training routes linked to jobs (particular forms of employment-training);

- people with handicaps or in particular situations: the training demand in this area is also very high;

- ventures are needed for people undertaking military service, for prison inmates or for long-term hospital patients.

The demand for vocational training following on from the upper secondary certificate which is growing in importance has to some extent been resolved by higher-level vocational training courses, the post-certificate activities of technical schools and university diplomas.

There is also a widespread and emerging demand from owners of micro-enterprises and craft enterprises facing problems of business management and having to cope with more cut-throat competition, even in local markets which were protected in the past.

Types of courses set out in regional classifying systems:

A — Work Training

A1. *Initial training*
- — Basic qualification:
  - Post-compulsory education
  - For 16 to 18-year-olds
  - For over 18-year-olds
- — Specialization/advanced/post-qualification
- — Training for students with admission to year 3 of upper secondary education or qualifying diploma

A2. *Training supplementing State education*
- — Training for return to school by vocational training students
- — Training for students of the final years of upper secondary education

A3. *Higher-level training*
- — Training of certificate holders
- — Training of graduates
- — Specialization/refresher/advanced training for certificate-holders
- — Advanced training for graduates
- — Qualification of users possessing qualifications relevant to the skill to be taught
- — Qualification of users possessing qualifications not relevant to the skill to be taught

B — On-the-Job Training

B1. *Training linked to mixed contracts*
- — Apprenticeship
- — E/T contracts

B2. *Training for employed and unemployed*
- — Qualification
- — Retraining/redeployment
- — Refresher
- — Specialization
- — Advanced

B3. *Training for the achievement of specific trade skills and authorization to carry on professional activities*

C — Training for specific groups

- — Restricted
- — Handicapped
- — Women

Central nature of the regional vocational training system

2.2.7
In recent years regional vocational training seems to have had four main features:

— the increasing importance of quality as a discussion issue;

— larger numbers of adult trainees;

— the development of regional differences in different regional systems;

— the interaction between school and vocational training.

Vocational training seems to be subject to periods of major discussion and attempts to reform the system as a whole which alternate with cycles of rationalization and calm.

From the 1970s to the middle of the 1980s the main interests in the training sector were of an institutional type (delegation, management agencies, social auditing, etc.) whereas in the 1990s the emerging needs are of a functional type (planning and evaluation methods, etc.). The major concern at that time was to subject the system to some form of control by regulating its organization and ensuring its correct administration. Attention is now being paid to the credibility of the training product, i.e. whether or not it meets changes in society, new market needs and users' different expectations. Vocational training has also been affected by the quality issue.

Professional qualification certificates can be obtained from the various types of regional vocational training course (see Section 3 for further details).

Changes and new flows in regional vocational training

2.2.8
Between 1984 and 1990, initial training started to account for a declining proportion of the total, dropping from 58 to 41%, while higher level activities increased by 13 from 4% to 17% and courses for adults maintained a level of some 30%.

Courses planned by regions for 1989-91 by type

TYPE/LEVEL	ABSOLUTE VALUES			PERCENTAGE BREAKDOWN		
	1988-89	1989-90	1990-91	1988-89	1989-90	1990-91
INITIAL QUALIFICATION	**8 804**	**7 733**	**7 830**	**44.6**	**41.7**	**37.0**
One Year		1 256	1 213		6.8	5.7
Two years		5 972	6 069		32.2	29.7
Three years		505	548		2.7	2.6
HIGHER QUALIFICATION	**2 763**	**3 173**	**3 435**	**14.0**	**17.1**	**16.3**
One Year		2 089	2 533		11.3	12.0
Link-up		198	180		1.1	0.9
Specialization		886	722		4.9	3.4
ADULTS	**6 326**	**5 598**	**7 428**	**32.0**	**30.2**	**35.1**
Training/retraining		1 339	1 864		7.2	9.9
Refresher		3 637	4 468		19.6	21.1
Specialization		315	350		1.7	1.7
Advanced		307	746		1.7	3.5
SPECIAL COURSES	**1 775**	**1 757**	**2 397**	**9.0**	**9.5**	**11.4**
Handicapped			576			2.6
Restricted			256			1.2
Leagues			1 380			6.3
Public authorities			185			0.8
NOT SPECIFIED/OTHER	**73**	**271**	**48**	**0.4**	**1.5**	**0.2**
GENERAL TOTAL	**19 741**	**18 532**	**21 138**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**

Source: ISFOL.

The need to improve the job skills of young people is reflected by the changes in initial training following on from compulsory education and the intensification of post-certificate schemes. Regional vocational training has undergone substantial change and has gradually moved towards a system catering for all the training needs of young people and adults at any time of their working lives, whatever their level or occupation and whatever the economic sector or field of work.

A recurrent vocational training system, which would entail the formulation and adoption of an organic design and the structured and interconnected articulation of the range of training opportunities available for the various target groups, has yet to be established. The logic which is still being followed is one of emerging needs, i.e. finding ways of meeting those needs which are or are felt to be the most urgent.

The term 'regional training system' cannot nowadays be used as a single and all-inclusive term covering this sector of the training supply: the organization of vocational training and the institutions involved vary so much among different regions that it would be more correct to speak of 'systems' or 'subsystems'.

Over the years vocational training schemes have been structured in ways which are highly typical of individual regions, but which respect the law completely. In our system, as mentioned above, regions are responsible for vocational training. While this is quite regular it is not always logical.

For instance, basic training is fragmented throughout Italy into a myriad of qualifications where the names and durations of similar training routes often differ.

While plurality may entail the dissipation of schemes, it also entails a wealth of activities and a willingness to experiment, pay attention to innovative projects and make the most of local demand.

The fact that regional activities differ so greatly means that it is not possible to give an overall assessment of vocational training. There can be little doubt, however, that vocational training functions acceptably in the north, while vocational training in the south is a highly problematical area where situations of excellence exist alongside situations of mediocrity.

In recent years contacts and interactions between vocational training and schools have taken two main forms:

— courses of training to supplement education designed for pupils in the final years of upper secondary education and put into practice through partnerships between regional vocational training centres, schools and enterprise;

— the management by schools of individual higher level post-certificate training schemes planned and funded by regions following protocols between provincial directors of education, regions and some upper secondary schools.

Other types of course

2.2.9
The various types of training provided under the regional system include training to supplement State education. This category includes both training to prepare vocational training students to re-enter education and training for students in the final years of upper secondary education.

The first type of scheme, already implemented, for instance, in the autonomous province of Trento, lasts one year and is intended to prepare students for the examination leading to the certificate issued by State vocational schools.

The second type takes the form of courses intended to help students in the final years of upper secondary education to acquire specific technical and specialist abilities and skills supplementing their academic and scientific education with knowledge and expertise of a technical and practical nature.

These schemes supplement the school curriculum; they do not overlap but rather offer young people further levels of occupational skills to help them to find jobs.

The training objective of these schemes is to supplement the cultural and theoretical aspects of secondary education with further occupational skill training which is in keeping with modern industrial culture. These training schemes include a sizable proportion of work experience periods, guided visits and teaching by experts from the business world.

Depending on their aims, structural features and the time at which they take place, these ventures can be divided into study/work schemes (summer grants) or genuine courses.

Even though the quantity of supplementary training schemes is small in comparison with the volume of courses provided by the vocational training system, they are a very important development since they allow for contact and interaction between schools, regional vocational training and the business world.

In the area of higher-level activities where considerable development has taken place, particular mention needs to be made of training activities for 'weak certificates'. These are activities which are still at an experimental stage and are aimed for the most part at women who are often sent to schools traditionally considered to be the most appropriate for women even when this involves training routes which offer, in objective terms, few opportunities for job placement. *Ad hoc* training routes are being designed and implemented for these groups of certificate holders in order to meet actual vocational needs and at the same time to build on the knowledge acquired at school.

A crossroads — the most appropriate and relevant areas for vocational training in the 1990s

2.2.10
In the case of lower-level activities, the current trend in Italy, even though there is much debate and controversy, is to place initial training in the school system and make the regional system responsible for subsequent levels of training.

It seems to be the case nowadays that two thirds of initial vocational training users are young people leaving lower secondary school after a period of schooling which has been unsatisfactory or even deficient and one third of users are young people leaving upper secondary education during the first two years.

These young people, often alienated from the public education system, have little more to look forward to than premature and unskilled employment. In this context, vocational training offers them schooling to train them in multi-skilled occupational archetypes using methods of an empirical and inductive rather than scholastic type so that they can move from concrete experience to abstract concepts.

Quantitative aspects of regional vocational training activities

2.2.11
We give below some general information taken from ISFOL data based on surveys of courses planned by regions for 1990/91 and on approved training plans.

These data show:

— an increase, albeit small, in regional training activity in 1991: the number of courses planned is close on 19 000 in comparison with 18 500 in 1990 (an increase of 2%);

— the trend in numbers of trainees expected is less dynamic: around 340 000 in 1991 showing an increase of slightly over 1 000 in comparison with 1990;

— as a result, the average number of trainees per course decreases between 1990 and 1991: the relative value decreases from 18.3 to 17.8;

— positive trends both in the number of courses and the number of trainees are to be found in the North-West and especially in the Centre: courses increase by over 11% in the North-West and by some 40% in the Centre;

— in contrast, the volume of activity decreases in the north-eastern regions as a whole and in the South: by a little less than 6% in the former and over 11% in the latter;

— in terms of 'weight', the percentage for which the north-western and central regions account consequently increases while that of the north-eastern and southern regions decreases;

— as a result of different trends in course and trainee numbers, the number of trainees per course varies in the different geographical areas and within these areas themselves (with values which decrease from North to South);

— as regards the breakdown of courses by type, the downward trend in initial qualification courses gathers momentum in 1991 both in terms of quantity and as a percentage of the total, while the upward trend in higher-level courses continues both in terms of numbers and percentage weight; in 1991 adult training also shows an upward trend with an increase of 2% in comparison with 1990;

— the distribution of courses by sector does not seem to be changing to any great extent: the 1991 structure is very similar to that of 1990 with only a slight increase (of a few percentage points) in the number of agricultural and industrial courses and a slight decrease in the number of service sector courses.

Trainee numbers in courses planned by regions in the period 1989-91 by type of course

TYPE/LEVEL	ABSOLUTE VALUES			PERCENTAGE BREAKDOWN		
	1988-89	1989-90	1990-91	1988-89	1989-90	1990-91
INITIAL QUALIFICATION	**170 163**	**148 392**	**144 938**	**46.1**	**43.8**	**38.1**
One Year		21 620	19 789		6.4	5.2
Two years		116 490	115 222		34.4	30.3
Three years		10 282	9 927		3.0	2.6
HIGHER QUALIFICATION	**49 443**	**54 018**	**58 214**	**13.4**	**15.9**	**15.3**
Annual		33 576	41 725		9.9	11.0
Link-up		4 034	3 426		1.2	0.9
Specialization		16 408	13 063		4.8	3.4
ADULTS	**118 009**	**101 415**	**130 554**	**31.9**	**29.9**	**34.3**
Training/retraining		24 257	30 057		7.2	7.9
Refresher		66 418	52 132		19.6	21.6
Specialization		5 398	5 786		1.6	1.5
Advanced		5 342	12 579		1.6	3.3
SPECIAL COURSES	**29 802**	**29 859**	**46 207**	**8.1**	**8.8**	**12.1**
Handicapped		6 860	6 395		2.0	1.7
Restricted		1 643	3 045		0.5	0.4
Leagues		17 998	33 361		5.3	5.8
Public authorities		3 358	3 406		1.0	0.9
NOT SPECIFIED/OTHER	**1 972**	**5 043**	**660**	**0.5**	**1.5**	**0.2**
GENERAL TOTAL	**369 389**	**338 727**	**380 573**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**

Source: ISFOL.

Courses planned by regions in the period 1989-91 by sector of qualification

SECTOR	ABSOLUTE VALUES			PERCENTAGE BREAKDOWN		
	1988-89	1989-90	1990-91	1988-89	1989-90	1990-91
AGRICULTURE	**3 273**	**1 923**	**3 578**	**0.0**	**10.4**	**16.9**
Agriculture		1 912	3 561		10.3	16.8
Fisheries and aquaculture		11	17		0.1	0.1
INDUSTRY AND CRAFTS	**6 399**	**6 288**	**6 520**	**32.4**	**33.9**	**30.5**
Mining industries	4	29	27	0.0	0.2	0.1
Non-metal-bearing minerals	35	14	11	0.2	0.1	0.1
Heavy engineering	2 543	2 369	2 473	12.9	12.9	11.7
Electronics/electricity	1 731	1 696	1 721	8.8	9.2	8.1
Chemicals	76	61	69	0.4	0.3	0.3
Building	239	367	314	1.2	2.0	1.5
Wood/furniture/fittings	192	201	174	1.0	1.1	0.8
Printing/photography/paper	302	287	298	1.5	1.5	1.4
Foodstuffs	161	196	207	0.8	1.1	1.0
Textiles	36	39	53	0.2	0.2	0.3
Clothing	690	692	702	3.5	3.7	3.3
Arts and crafts	390	337	471	2.0	1.8	2.2
SERVICE SECTOR	**9 027**	**10 050**	**11 038**	**46.7**	**54.2**	**52.2**
Hairdressing	609	612	702	3.1	3.3	3.3
Tourism	303	280	337	1.5	1.5	1.6
Entertainment	132	165	135	0.7	0.9	0.6
Office work	2 936	2 840	2 947	14.9	15.3	13.9
Cooperation	0	126	159	0.0	0.7	0.8
Catering	748	669	686	3.8	3.6	3.2
Banking and finance	33	58	41	0.2	0.3	0.2
Promotion/advertising	175	207	261	0.9	1.1	1.2
Commercial distribution	615	689	738	3.1	3.7	3.5
Transport	69	78	100	0.3	0.4	0.5
Ecology and environment	161	264	316	0.8	1.4	1.5
Informatics	1 597	1 786	2 173	8.1	9.6	10.3
Cultural assets	129	94	107	0.7	0.5	0.5
Social/educational	569	637	724	2.9	3.4	3.4
Sundry	951	1 545	1 612	4.8	8.3	7.6
TOTAL	**18 699**	**18 261**	**21 136**	**94.7**	**98.5**	**100.0**
NOT CLASSIFIED	**1 042**	**271**	**2**	**5.3**	**1.5**	**0.0**
GENERAL TOTAL	**19 741**	**18 532**	**21 138**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**

Source: ISFOL.

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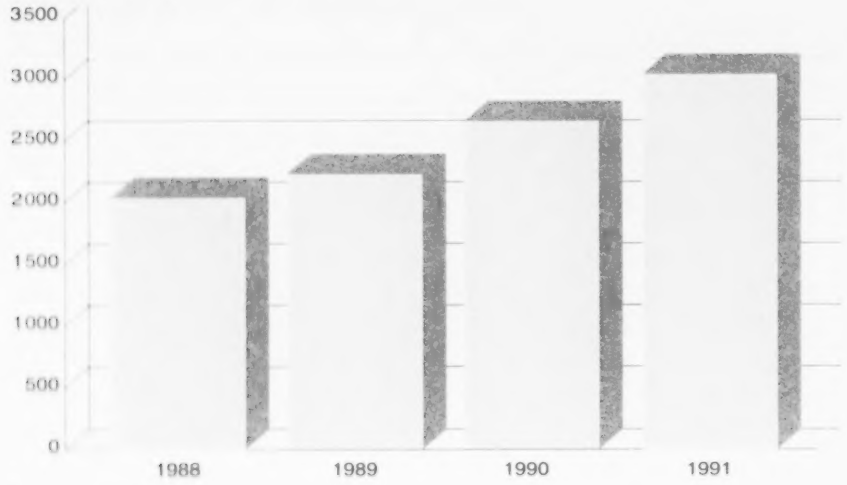
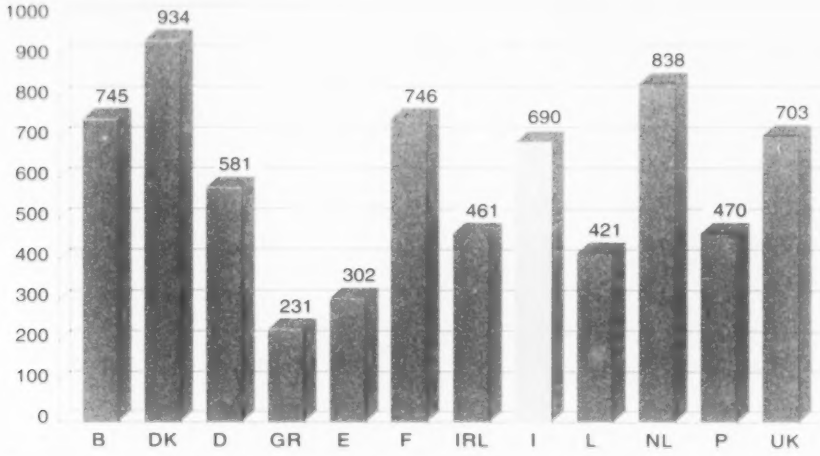
Regional expenditure on vocational training in 1988-91 (billion LIT)



Source: ISFOL.

Public expenditure on vocational training in 1985 (per inhabitant)



Source: Eurostat — *A social portrait of Europe,* 1991.

Regional spending on vocational training

2.2.12

As regards regional spending on vocational training, 1990 allocations totalled more than LIT 2 500 billion showing an increase of 19% over 1989; the most sustained increases were in the central and north-east regions as a whole, while variations in the north-west regions were small (with expenditure being reduced in some regions). In the south there was an increase of some 9% between 1989 and 1990 bringing overall expenditure to more than LIT 1 230 billion: approximately half of all national expenditure.

Total expenditure allocated to vocational training by the regions, by region, in 1988-91

Region	Initial appropriations 1988[a]	1989[a]	1990[a]	1991	% variations (1000 LIT) 1988-89	1989-90	1990-91	1988-91
Valle d'Aosta	15 860 300	31 985 650	25 330 000	18 841 500	101.7	-20.8	-25.6	18.8
Piedmont	94 777 659	98 365 105	112 476 006	190 680 374	3.8	14.3	69.5	101.2
Liguria	53 658 000	56 360 250	53 530 000	72 199 482	5.0	-5.0	34.9	34.6
Lombardy	260 005 000	261 665 000	263 025 000	326 380 315	0.6	0.5	24.1	25.5
Province of Trento	48 598 500	58 791 000	66 203 000	84 961 500	21.0	12.6	28.3	74.9
Veneto	94 380 000	60 947 000	142 532 000	150 312 000	-35.4	133.9	2.2	59.2
Friuli V.G.	41 290 000	44 955 000	61 552 000	65 848 400	8.9	36.9	7.0	59.5
Emilia-Romagna	104 798 382	99 021 500	158 340 280	173 240 186	-5.5	59.9	9.4	65.3
Tuscany	31 492 000	33 235 000	86 495 000	74 103 000	5.5	160.3	-14.3	135.3
Umbria	21 624 935	22 606 599	27 654 300	34 693 600	4.5	22.3	25.5	60.4
Marches	42 644 049	90 064 948	92 412 856	75 481 292	111.2	2.6	-18.3	77.0
Lazio	88 876 000	97 068 000	145 189 000	175 031 999	9.2	49.6	20.6	96.9
Abruzzo	129 322 662	140 370 613	40 721 969	195 057 092	8.5	-71.0	379.0	50.8
Molise	26 486 750	27 078 200	29 631 919	54 903 075	2.2	9.4	85.3	107.3
Campania	172 612 727	164 255 702	204 262 616	145 512 982	-4.8	24.4	-28.8	-15.7
Apulia	77 992 750	136 880 000	231 258 595	264 775 520	75.5	68.9	14.5	239.5
Basilicata	82 284 000	81 305 300	102 770 600	102 647 423	-1.2	26.4	-0.1	24.7
Calabria	42 418 419	69 470 252	67 702 035	136 872 018	63.8	-2.5	102.2	222.7
Sicily	259 289 900	304 610 900	353 442 000	444 856 000	17.5	16.0	25.9	71.6
Sardinia	281 490 000	284 816 000	290 672 000	225 304 000	1.2	2.1	-22.5	-20.0
Total	**2 004 352 733**	**2 185 882 027**	**2 599 913 303**	**3 069 102 658**	**91**	**18.9**	**18.0**	**53.1**

[a] The figures have been corrected following harmonization of expenditure heads: this harmonization lead to increases and decreases of figures previously provided.

Source: ISFOL.

Total expenditure allocated to vocational training by the regions, by area, in 1988-91

Area	Initial appropriations (1000 LIT) 1988	1989	1990	1991
North-West	424 300 959	448 376 005	454 634 006	608 101 671
North-East	323 517 582	285 744 500	473 339 680	531 762 986
Centre	184 636 984	242 974 547	351 751 156	359 309 891
South	1 071 897 208	120 876 975	1 320 461 461	1 569 928 110
Italy	2 004 352 733	2 185 882 027	2 599 913 303	3 069 102 658

	% variations 1988-89	1989-90	1990-91	1988-91
North-West	5.7	1.3	33.8	43.3
North-East	-11.7	65.7	12.3	64.4
Centre	31.6	44.8	2.1	94.6
South	12.8	9.2	18.9	46.5
Italy	9.1	18.9	18.0	53.1

Source: ISFOL.

Trainers

2.2.13
In the new culture of training the emphasis is increasingly on combining action with expertise. The labour market is changing from a workers' market to an occupational skill market. The new methods of production are intersectoral, interfunctional and systemic.

One of the dimensions of technological innovation is consequently organizational innovation with the result that jobs and occupational profiles are being structured and personalized in terms of the personal qualities of workers and the solutions used in the production situations of individual firms.

Training operators are having to cope with this unavoidable change in working methods and in some cases have problems updating their method approaches.

Recent surveys by ISFOL (1990) show that the regional sector employs a total of 27 989 operators distributed at a ratio of 1 to 2 between public, regional and/or delegated management (9 694) and convention-regulated management (18 295).

The ratio between teaching staff (60%) and non-teaching staff (40%) in the public sector is less balanced than in the convention-regulated sector where the percentages are 75% and 25% respectively. A substantial proportion of spending in the sector goes on staff; less is invested in research and updating.

An analysis of the breakdown and career paths of regional training operators shows that the majority of trainers (3/5) have worked before coming into vocational training; the experience which they possess is in linear correlation with their educational qualifications which are not in general higher than the State vocational or technical school certificate or the upper secondary certificate in commercial, scientific, technical and vocational subjects. Italy currently has no specific diploma for training experts.

Older people (with the lowest standards of education) come from small businesses and craft firms; younger people (with higher standards of education) come into vocational training after experience for the most part in the school sector.

Consequently, the comparatively young average age of staff is coupled with a standard of education which is not high and with prior work experience based to a large extent on trade skill or school models.

This development is linked to the fact that most training is organized in a way which reflects school courses.

This type of arrangement is now being reviewed as it represents for many people a route which is too similar to the school route, defined critically as 'B-grade'.

Some differentiation of the two models (school and training) is needed since they may be integrated but have different operating needs and are both designed to offer young people higher-level occupational skills.

In the current system of vocational training, the stress is often placed on teaching rather than learning.

The new technologies have helped to develop and accumulate new knowledge which has not replaced existing knowledge but has supplemented, transformed and expressed this knowledge through new instruments and new combinations.

New training strategies must be located for this purpose: training organized in the form of courses based on a school approach has been superseded: the educational and teaching pendulum has swung away from teaching towards the various personalized and professionalizing routes with the result that classroom teaching and traditional courses are only one of many possible opportunities and training routes.

Training is therefore being structured according to other criteria: shorter, better targeted, rapid, continuing and offering opportunities for mobility at a regional, national and international level. Training is also being linked up with the business world through work experience periods, visits and meetings and is ready to take up new ideas, for instance, open learning, i.e. those training methods which are not structured in the form of traditional courses but organized using other supports (paper, audio, video, computer, etc.) and specifically designed for individual use.

In this context, trainers will increasingly be asked to carry out planning and coordination tasks in addition to specific teaching tasks which will gradually be delegated to different experts in individual sectors.

Trainers will be asked to use surveying and research methods to anticipate changes, new requirements and different customer profiles.

The training of trainers is consequently one of the major challenges as regards the development of training culture and with it the standard of trainers.

This aspect of training is at present the responsibility of the State (Ministry of Labour) using the funding set out in Articles 18 and 26 of Law 845/78 and Law 492/88.

Vocational training in enterprise

2.2.14
'Investing in human resources' is a principle which has now spread through the Italian business world.

The key to innovative development has shifted away from energy and raw materials towards qualified human resources, scientific and technological expertise and business and professional skills at every level.

In recent years businesses have therefore given priority in their training activities to the changes brought about by the introduction of new technology by passing on up-to-date knowledge at the time of installation, retraining some operators in new duties and processes and stepping up the entrepreneurial and managerial culture of managers.

Professional values have acquired increasing importance for the individual worker, not just as a strategic resource or trump card for the renewal and improvement of their own job opportunities, but also as a factor of social identity, personal and/or group culture and growth and self-realization.

This awareness has been reflected nationally by a number of business training schemes and initiatives which are not always comparable in view of the far-reaching differences in the size and economic resources of businesses; this has led to a 'training archipelago' containing both advanced and less advanced situations.

The 1988 and 1989 ISFOL reports stress the close links between company size, sector of activity, level of product innovation and presence of training divisions in Italian firms. The training division (called by a hundred or so different names) is generally to be found in large businesses, to a smaller extent in medium-sized businesses (mostly in the more innovative firms or firms which are part of Italian or multinational groups) and not at all in small businesses.

Although the general trend is towards an increase in the relative numbers of companies with share capital in the total number of firms in Italy (*source:* CERVED, the Chamber of Commerce's databank), i.e. an increase of companies with a more company-like structure than others, Italy continues to be the country which has less than a million employees in manufacturing firms with more than 500 employees. This means, in overall terms, that only a limited number of large firms (less than 2 000 in the manufacturing and service sectors as a whole) have training divisions formulating training strategies which are an integral part of company strategies.

According to the 1989 ISFOL report, surveys of the quantity and quality of the training demand in business show that there is a direct correlation between company size and the in-house or external nature of training services; this polarity also depends on whether the firm is in the manufacturing or the service sector.

Numbers of people 'trained' in enterprise

2.2.15
A considerable quantity of training was supplied by private centres and directly by firms in 1989. According to CENSIS estimates, some 1 640 000 people took part in this training.

Participants in public and private training courses (1985-89)

	1985	1989
Regional vocational training	285 610	270 737[a]
Vocation education	503 859	537 889
Firms[a]	920 000	1 000 000
Private[b]	340 000	640 000
Apprentices	547 023	566 850
Employment/training contracts	108 434	529 927[c]
Total	**2 704 926**	**3 545 403**

[a] Partial data for 1989.
[b] CENSIS estimate.
[c] A proportion of the 493 643 contract holders in 1988 needs to be added to this figure, since the maximum duration of the employment/training contact is two years

Source: CENSIS, ISTAT, Ministry of Labour.

Young people placed in enterprise

2.2.16
Data on young people placed in the production system under apprenticeship and employment-training contracts show that these two methods are particularly dynamic; in 1989, 529 297 young people were taken on under employment-training contracts and 566 850 were placed under apprenticeship contracts. Bearing in mind that apprentices account for 76.2% of those in employment between the ages of 14 and 19 and that 66.4% of people involved in employment-training contracts have achieved at most the leaving certificate at the end of compulsory schooling, it seems likely that almost all employees in the 14 to 19 age band have gained a foothold in the working world through these contractual methods.

There is still lively discussion between the social partners and the authorities about the actual quality of the training provided by these two methods. It is probable that some reforms, possibly partial, of these two methods will be introduced to bring the levels of the qualifications obtained up to the standards in other EU Member States (France and Germany).

Apprentices out of total employees aged 14 to 19, total and employees

	1986	1987	1988	1989
Apprentices	523 053	529 795	556 606	566 850
Employed (aged 14 to 19)				
Total	771 000	763 000	778 000	744 000
Employee status	630 000	636 000	630 000	–
% apprentices out of employed				
Total	67.8	69.4	71.5	76.2
Employee status	83.0	83.3	88.4	–

Source: CENSIS processing of Ministry of Labour and ISTAT data.

VOCATIONAL TRAINING SYSTEMS

Young people placed on employment/training contracts (absolute values and % 1987-89)

	1987		1988		1989	
	av	%	av	%	av	%
Sex						
Male	234 040	60.3	293 220	59.4	316 520	59.8
Female	153 788	39.7	200 423	40.6	212 777	40.2
Total	387 828	100.0	493 643	100.0	529 297	100.0
Education						
Up to compulsory	240 014	61.9	320 664	65.0	341 453	66.4
Secondary certificate	139 834	36.0	162 419	32.9	166 758	31.5
Degree	7 980	2.1	107 888	2.1	11 086	2.1
Sectors						
Agriculture	2 510	0.6	3 159	0.6	2 232	0.4
Industry	227 502	58.7	289 621	58.7	314 217	59.3
Services	157 816	40.7	200 863	40.7	212 848	40.2
Geographical area						
North	286 099	73.8	353 718	71.6	375 007	70.8
Centre	70 427	18.1	95 452	19.3	99 247	18.8
South	31 302	8.1	44 473	9.0	55 043	10.4

In the production system, training schemes aimed specifically at young people are represented by the formulas of apprenticeship (user ages between 14 and 19) predominantly found in small and medium-sized businesses and employment-training contracts (up to the age of 29 and 32 for women).

Various school-work exchange programmes have also been launched as a result of opportunities for experimentation and the implementation of special projects set out in agreements between schools and businesses.

Given the structure of the Italian economy and the importance of medium-sized, small and very small businesses, the potential offered by over 1 050 000 entrepreneurs who have direct contact with young people in employment-training schemes needs to be carefully evaluated.

In order to provide a more detailed picture of new training activities for young people leaving school and starting work, a number of agreements with the production system taken out by the Ministry of Education are examined below.

Agreements with organizations representing the production system tend to institutionalize relationships and to create a guarantee framework allowing schools and businesses considerable flexibility of action.

Raising the school-leaving age has meant that there is less scope in curricula for training in specific skills; without a link with the world of production, used as a basic resource for education and training, this could impoverish the dimension of specific occupational skills.

CEDEFOP

Signatory organizations undertake to provide support and a reference framework for innovative ventures by the Ministry of Education in this area. Up to now, signatories include:

— Confcommercio (Italian General Confederation of Commerce, Tourism and Services), 3 May 1989;

— FIAVET (Italian Federation of Travel Agents), 15 November 1988;

— Confapi (Italian Federation of Small and Medium-sized Industry), 20 December 1988;

— Confartigianato, CNA (National Confederation of Craft Enterprises) and CASA (Independent Confederation of Craft Unions).

Management and business training

2.2.17
Training for managers and entrepreneurs is obviously of great importance given the proliferation of sole traders and micro-enterprises.

Over the last 10 years business management has undergone very rapid change. The increasingly international nature of the economy, substantial technological innovation, growing differentiation and sophistication of consumers' requirements and, last but not least, the advent of the single European market, have all made the business world increasingly competitive.

Competition will increasingly move away from goods, services and capital towards expertise: in a word towards 'brains'. The wealth reproduction and distribution system will be shaped, not by legislation or technocratic action, but by high-potential people with high levels of education, especially in the strategic sectors of development.

Recent surveys have shown that there is no linear correlation between a nation's investment in R&D and the growth of this nation's gross domestic product. Other intangible, qualitative and subjective factors, which often cannot be measured, consequently have an impact on the dynamism of the production of wealth and added value.

Over and above the profitability of a university system, there is a less evident dimension: the focused production of professional resources, normally carried out by the system made up of training consultancy offices and companies and business schools which often work in tandem with universities or with training consultancy companies or take the form of free enterprise linked with domestic and foreign academic and business circles.

Business schools tend to follow the university development model, establishing an internal corps of teachers and investing in research and public activities (research congresses, seminars, publications).

While there are over 200 postgraduate and other 'masters' courses on the Italian market, only an average of 500 people graduate each year (in comparison with 70 000 in the USA); in the short term, this raises some problems of overproduction. The most significant aspect of these courses is that they offer an opportunity to learn how to interact with the various aspects of a business and to change mentalities in the area of problem-solving.

The most representative organizations include, by way of example:

COREP — Masters in environmental engineering, Masters in informatics and automation and Masters in informatics and telecommunications. The main aim is to provide high-quality training in the various fields covered by the course and to upgrade the occupational profiles of graduates in particular sectors.

SAA — Masters in business administration is designed for graduates wishing to acquire expertise in management techniques and in particular an integrated and interdisciplinary problem-solving approach towards business management.

The world of business schools in Milan and neighbouring areas is particularly large:

AIAF — Training course for financial analysts

The course offers specialist training in financial analysis and portfolio management and is aimed predominantly at people working for banks, finance companies, brokers and dealers, investment trusts and stock managers.

AIDIM — Masters in direct marketing

Provides professional training for people intending to work in the direct marketing field and already possessing substantial business experience.

CEFOR — Masters in bank management

Takes an interdisciplinary approach to bank activities and is aimed at people already working in this field.

IPF — Masters in business management

Is intended to train experts in the problems raised by business management and organization.

IPSOA — Masters in business management, Masters in taxation and Masters in business communications

These are generally aimed at Italian and foreign graduates and are intended to provide a comprehensive knowledge of business management, taxation and business communications.

NOVA COMUN — Masters in business administration

Aimed at graduates with some work experience in positions of responsibility wishing to train for senior management positions.

SDA-BOCCONI

The Scuola di Direzione Aziendale della Università L. Bocconi (Business Administration School of the L. Bocconi University) is worth examining in more detail. Its management and operating structure and the quality of its courses and teaching staff have made it the leader in this sector in Italy.

The SDA-Bocconi offers four Masters courses:

— two-year course in business economics and administration (CEGA);
— Masters in business administration (MBA);
— Executive Masters (EM);
— Masters in international economics and management (MIEM).

In terms of quality, the LUISS Management School in Rome is comparable to the SDA-Bocconi, offers a wide range of training on social, economic and legal subjects and has a substantial international reputation.

Schools and the training industry consequently offer a very wide range of opportunities for the in-depth study of topics connected with business, aimed at a very varied market ranging from certificate-holders with a minimum of five years of experience in business to graduates and managers.

The many courses run by training agencies, such as IFAP IRI, IAFE-ENI, ELEA-Olivetti, ISVOR-Fiat, the Higher School for the Public Administration (SSPA), etc., for managers in or outside the industrial groups or institutions which they represent, are similar to postgraduate masters courses.

Continuing vocational education and training

Adult education

2.2.18
In the area of adult education, basic education courses (lower and upper secondary), courses providing refresher and advanced training in primary education, remedial courses, reading centres and social centres for permanent education, adult education courses, music appreciation courses, summer schools, etc., are run from year to year wherever there is a need or a demand. These are free courses run by State schools, authorities, factories, etc. Length varies in terms of content, ranging from a minimum of three months to a maximum of 11 months. Courses take place during the day or in the evening and may be limited to a few days of the week or periods of the year.

In Italy, adult vocational training establishments have not achieved the consistency and organic nature of a system.

Experimental courses for workers known as '150 hours' still need appropriate legal and administrative organization. These initiatives, set in motion in 1974 following an agreement between the Ministry of Education and union confederations, allow workers who do not possess the lower secondary certificate to take 150 hours of annual paid leave over a period of three years so that they can obtain the certificate by attending courses run under the supervision of provincial directors of education at public or legally recognized establishments.

These hours can be used for lower secondary education (remedial courses in compulsory education in order to obtain the lower secondary certificate) or for upper secondary or university education (study seminars on problems affecting industry or society).

These courses represent a concrete enactment of the right to study and to permanent education. Work plans are formulated jointly by trainers and users of the school and put into practice in a new way, starting from the socio-

economic situation in which the worker lives and works rather than from a curriculum. One of the problems which has arisen is that some courses may be culturally deficient.

Continuing vocational training

2.2.19
Continuing or permanent training has long been seen as a significant addition, i.e. in substance as a supplement to general culture and other cultural concepts. Nowadays, however, adults are looking for permanent education which varies considerably depending on their situations and occupational tasks; all adults, whether unemployed, undergoing retraining or in the midst of their careers, feel the need to update or extend knowledge connected with their present or future careers. The awareness of these needs encourages individuals to be more selective in their choice of continuing training so as to satisfy their expectations in the best possible way. The trend is towards the recognition of their professional experience and the improvement of their potential as members of the cultural, social and professional community.

Nowadays concerns of a professional nature are intrinsically connected with the need for continuing training. While this is not a new development, attention has up to now been paid largely to training aimed at manual or office workers. Nowadays, workers at higher levels are also feeling the need for development and continuing vocational training: technicians, managers, entrepreneurs, etc.

Regional innovation plans, the interest being shown by various public and private structures, the schemes being run by trade associations, the use of funds set aside by firms for these activities and the availability of training within companies all bear witness to the increasingly professional nature of vocational training.

While there is a widespread awareness of the need for this training in Italy, the terms of agreements are not always implemented as they should be. Training for adults in employment is regulated by the national collective labour agreements for the various industries which provide scope and time for training opportunities.

Detailed examination of these agreements shows that training is no longer the exclusive task of personnel divisions, but a strategy which is thought out and formulated in other places as well: the spur for this type of training comes in most cases from production divisions and this undoubtedly leaves its mark on the type of training which is set up: short, focusing specifically on new expertise and indispensable.

In companies, as mentioned above, training initiatives are linked to the size of firms: significant activities in large firms, some activity in medium-sized firms and hardly any activity in small firms. For SMEs training raises problems from the point of view of cost and reductions of working hours when employees have to take leave to attend training.

New training strategies, unconnected with school criteria, need to be designed, using short course and open learning methods.

Owners and/or managers of SMEs are also showing some interest in refresher training, probably so that they themselves can pass on this training to their colleagues when they return to the firm.

In the regional training system, vocational training courses aimed at adult users have increased substantially in all sectors.

An analysis of the types of courses planned for employed adults shows that almost two thirds of schemes involve refresher training, while less than 25% of courses are aimed at the employee training or retraining.

The amount of regional training for adults is tending to increase in the south and centre, while figures are decreasing in the north and especially in the north-east.

It should be borne in mind that these figures do not relate to vocational training as a whole, but only to that proportion of training offered by regions. The very substantial volume of training supplied outside of regional management, and in particular in-company training, follows different routes, methods and criteria which are more difficult to survey.

Adults are also tending to choose independent training opportunities which may be outside of institutional centres.

Apart from a few exceptions, the regional system is still placing most emphasis on lower and higher-level youth training.

The vocational training being offered by vocational training centres is going through a period of change. The aims of this change are to update basic technologies, improve design, step up development prospects and retrain permanent staff to cope with the needs of a very fluid and constantly changing labour market. One trend which is emerging is the organization of shorter training routes and curricula which are more in keeping with the training of adults already in employment for whom learning to learn and the conscious organization of knowledge are very important.

ISFOL has recently studied the way in which workers perceive the problem of training, with a sample (1991) of 450 industrial workers from small, medium-sized and large firms and workers from craft firms. The sectors included were heavy engineering, chemicals and textiles.

Of the workers interviewed 50% said that they had attended vocational training courses; workers from larger industry accounted for most of this figure and craft employees for far less: only 26% of the latter had attended courses during their working life.

A significant link was also discovered between the type of course attended and the age band predominantly involved: in general, younger workers aged under 40 tended to go to facilities outside the company for training while workers over 40 tended to make use of in-company opportunities.

As regards the study qualifications possessed by workers, there seemed to be a close link between higher standards of education and workers' willingness independently to attend training outside the company: workers with low standards of education were far less willing.

In summary, the first step towards renewal is to abandon training standards centred on initial training needs and school models. Adult trainees need very flexible and modular training routes. Flexibility is also needed as regards timetabling and the structure of course contents.

Some specific problems

Guidance

2.2.20
A geographically structured service and at the same time a system is now seen as a necessity both locally (regions) and at a central State level (Ministry of Labour and Social Security, Ministry of Education and Ministry of Universities and Scientific and Technological Research).

The priority task is to set up a national network system introducing and/or implementing new information and computer resources and technologies.

The objective of the guidance system is increasingly to pinpoint development trends in the labour market, highlighting new areas and school and training curricula and making the most of the pool of human resources which is not at present being used.

Guidance has to be seen as a continuing process able to provide individuals with the ability to compare their occupational skills and personal expectations with the reality of the working world in a changing society and production system.

For a number of years a variety of local measures and initiatives on guidance have been set out in regional laws having different priority objectives: right to study, permanent education, youth employment policy (see ISFOL, 1987).

The various national initiatives in particular include the Intersind/CGIL-CISL-UIL Agreement whose aim is to 'promote a range of guidance experiments (pilot projects) intended to help young people to make the transition to working life, focusing on young people in education as well as young people who have left education'. In concrete terms, this agreement makes it possible to carry out significant experiments linking up schools, training and work in the form of work experience periods, guided visits, refresher training for teachers, etc.

The 'protocol of agreement' of 4 April 1989 is also important since it provides a concrete starting point for the organization of an information network, whose linchpin is provided by the Centres for Local Employment Initiatives (CILOs), as part of a policy which gives priority to local authorities in economic policy and development areas.

The active role of local authorities is consequently being consolidated and links are also being created between different agencies. The creation of the CILOs is designed to set in motion a local network of information, guidance and counselling services which is well designed and supported. Guidelines and coordination are needed in this sector since the supply of services and initiatives is wide and varied, especially in northern Italy.

Southern Italy: a key area in the social demand for training

2.2.21
The social demand for vocational training — as stated in the ISFOL report on the state of vocational training in Italy, 20.6.1991 — is of considerable importance in the South; it should be borne in mind that the problem of students leaving compulsory and upper secondary education before completion has

reached major proportions in southern regions and that the numbers of young people who are underemployed, engaged in insecure jobs or have skills for which there are no outlets are greater. Occupational skills in operational work of a non-generic type are also lacking. There is a particularly marked need for the official entry into the labour market of middle-aged women with low educational levels in respect of service-sector activities in regions where women's employment levels are still low.

It should also be noted that older people are less able to adapt to change than in the centre and north; immigrants from outside the EU also have lower levels of professionalism than in other areas of Italy.

There are also large numbers of secondary school certificate-holders who are unemployed or underemployed and a relative shortage of middle managers able to shape the transformation and relaunch of a production system able to cope with the continuing growth of the southern standard of living and to help products from southern regions to gain a foothold in international markets. The service sector is growing and is throwing up specific training and retraining needs which are not yet comparable, however, with demand in the northern regions.

Lower-level vocational training is acquiring an important role in completing and supplementing more general basic education for young people and adults.

Higher-level vocational training seems to be designed to make the most of the operating potential existing throughout the southern regions using strategies coordinated on an interregional basis which allow for periods of work experience outside these regions.

The links between vocational training and the educational system make it necessary to pay particular attention to compulsory education as there is a high level of non-attendance. This has highlighted the need for a special action project on school education taking change at a basic level as a starting point.

The links between vocational training and the production system now require the creation of services for business, infrastructure and technological investment.

Various initiatives, taking the above factors as a starting point, have been set in motion by the Ministry for Special Projects in southern Italy and FORMEZ and are designed to build up centres of cultural excellence and launch training schemes for the intellectual resources which need to be optimized for local development, business creation and entrepreneurial activity of a social type (cooperatives).

Extraordinary measures to promote and develop entrepreneurial skills among young people in the south include Law 44 of 28 February 1986, as subsequently amended by Law 273.

The measures set out in the law are intended to reduce the failure rates of new enterprises set up in particular in areas with high unemployment levels by providing managerial training and technical assistance.

3 STATUTORY AND FINANCIAL STRUCTURES

Introduction

When we speak in this section of a regulatory structure for vocational training, it is difficult to make a clear-cut distinction between labour law governing the labour market, placement and employment, administrative law relating to the delegation of tasks from the State to the regions and specific regional and national laws relating to the vocational training system.

We have attempted, where possible, to connect historical events with the logical and operational sequence when looking at this specific issue.

The first subsection contains a review of the regulations prior to the outline law, where the State played a predominant role in managing the vocational training system, followed by a review of the specific regulations set out in the outline law and subsequent regional laws, where the regions, delegated local authorities and convention-regulated organizations play the predominant role in managing the vocational training system.

The second subsection reviews the financing of training against the outline law on vocational training, looking at the various funds and sources of finance: State, regions, EU and providing up-to-date budget data; trends are examined only when they are felt to be significant.

3.1 Statutory structure

From the entry into force of the Republican Constitution to the outline law: the predominant role of the State

3.1.1
Regulations on vocational training were initially set out in the Constitution and subsequently enacted through laws intended to implement their terms, respecting timings and the socioeconomic contexts of the country.

The terms of the Constitution relating to regional legislative functions (Article 117) were consequently the starting point.

This article states that regions shall issue, in respect of specific topics, 'legislative regulations, within the limits of the fundamental principles laid down by State legislation and provided that these regulations are not in conflict with national interests and with the interests of other regions' pursuant to Article 118 of the Constitution.

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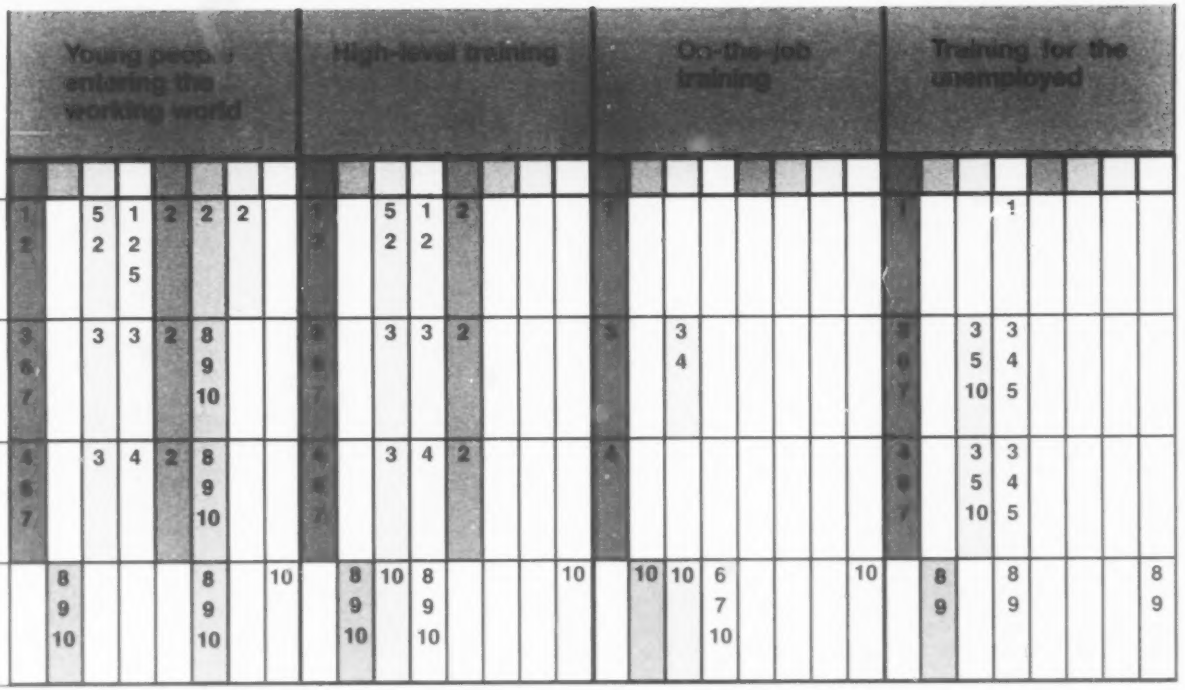
Responsible authorities (Italy)



1. Ministry of Labour
2. Ministry of Education
3. Regions and autonomous provinces (Trento and Bolzano)
4. Local authorities delegated by regions
5. Placement offices
6. Employers' associations
7. Workers' trade unions
8. Regional vocational training centres
9. Private non-profit-making centres
10. Enterprise schools and/or training centres

Regulation of the system

Determination of content

Assessment and certification

Information and guidance

Delivery:

only in schools or training centres

alternance and day release

self-study

only in workplace

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Placement — Law 264 of 29 April 1949

3.1.2
As subsequently amended and supplemented, Law 264 of 29 April 1949 sets out the option of a public placement system managed by local offices of the Ministry of Labour structured at provincial and commune level and the development of a system of vocational training in parallel with the subsystem of vocational education organized by the Ministry of Education.

Law 264/49 touched only marginally on vocational training since it was designed to regulate such a vast field and was a strategic resource for the reconstruction and harmonization of the labour market.

Vocational training was seen, in other words, in relation to policies to promote employment and safeguard workers threatened with unemployment.

Title IV set out regulations on the 'vocational training of workers surplus to requirements and of the unemployed'.

These provisions made the Ministry of Labour responsible for this issue (Articles 45 and 51):

'Courses for the unemployed are aimed at the vocational training, qualification, advanced training and retraining of workers who, as a result of their unemployed status or the events of the war, need to re-acquire, extend or rapidly change their skills'.

These courses had to be 'eminently practical' and 'normally last from two to eight months' and could be 'followed by more advanced courses'.

The law stated, in outline, that:

— courses may be promoted by State authorities and communes 'and by other bodies, institutions and associations' (Article 47);

— the promoters of courses, possessing appropriate facilities, may obtain the necessary funds and subventions (Article 48).

From the point of view of the administrative regulation of the sector (measures authorizing the termination or commencement of courses, etc.) the Ministry was given such wide-ranging regulatory powers because of its status as a funding body for training activities.

The Ministry was therefore able to lay down those conditions which it considered most appropriate for the grant of funds. These conditions, similarly to today, related in particular to the ability of third parties to meet the technical and logistical requirements needed fully to satisfy the requirements of the qualification to be awarded or the level of professionalism to be achieved.

Apprenticeship

3.1.3
Law 25 of 19 January 1955 on apprenticeship was a second step towards the promotion of training targeted on a particular type of need.

Under this law apprenticeship became a special employment relationship by virtue of which employers were obliged to impart or to arrange to impart, within their company, the teaching needed to allow the apprentices which they had employed to achieve the technical skills to become skilled workers, making use of their work within the company. An age limit of 20 was placed on this type of contract.

Under the law, apprentices are obliged to work diligently and assiduously attend supplementary training courses lasting eight hours per week. For this purpose, employers are obliged to allow apprentices to take leave to attend courses and sit examinations.

The vocational training system, funded by the Ministry of Labour, began to improve in terms of quality as a result of the constant attempts to rationalize the system. Two important guidance and management resources were provided by the publication of the 'Dictionary of professions' and the famous 'monographs' on the main occupational skills in sectors which were flourishing at that time: mechanical engineering, electrical engineering and electronics.

The value of these monographs lay in the fact that they specified timings, curricula with details of technical, scientific and vocational content, equipment needed and qualification examinations with associated evaluation criteria and therefore attempted to provide a nationally unified system of results and consequently professional certificates.

While this system contained excellent foundations for simplifying the labour market and providing guarantees for enterprises and workers' representatives, it gradually became obsolete because of the leap forward in technology and the industrial relations typical of the 1970s and 1980s.

In order to understand the events which shaped the vocational training system of those years, reference needs to be made to other initiatives which came to fruition in the broader system of public education. These include:

— the reform of lower secondary education and the extension of compulsory education to the age of 14 (1962);

— the inclusion of State vocational schools within the school system (1967);

— the conversion of three-year vocational schools into upper secondary establishments, some offering five-year courses providing access, in some cases, to university (1969).

The decisive step towards the construction of a comprehensive system of vocational training was taken in the 1970s when a number of laws reflecting a very important innovative trend were enacted.

Law 382 of 22 July 1975 setting out 'regulations on the regional system and the organization of the public authorities' and Presidential Decree 616 of 24 July 1977 which enacted the delegation set out in this law transferred or delegated administrative tasks for which the State was responsible to regions in cases of tasks which were predominantly or exclusively of local interest.

Decree 616/77 was of fundamental importance since it laid the foundations for a more systematic regulation of craft education and vocational training.

It contained precise regulations on regional objectives and methods of implementing initiatives.

Under Article 11 plans must be drawn up in accordance with national economic planning, bearing in mind that regions may enact regulations under which the performance of the tasks transferred and delegated by the State is further delegated to provinces, communes and communities (Article 118 of the Constitution).

Decree 616/77 therefore stressed the need for integrated and consistent planning by the State, regions and local authorities which also allowed for greater participation.

By giving regions sole responsibility for planning, initiatives relating to delegated issues could be managed by local authorities which, as a result of the 'dimensions' of the communities administered, were the expression of a democratic right and made it possible for institutions to formulate schemes 'to measure' so that the various needs expressed at local level could be met in an improved way.

Under Decree 616/77 many old and new administrative duties were combined and assigned making initiatives on vocational training more systematic.

Regional duties include 'services and activities coming under the heading of training, advanced training and retraining for any professional activity and for any purpose, including continuing, permanent and recurrent education and training following on from the conversion of production activities, excluding training aimed at the achievement of an educational qualification and the supervision of private adult and vocational training' (Article 35).

Administrative tasks (Article 36) include activities relating to:

— the organization of courses for socioeconomic researchers;

— the training of commercial operators;

— the training and refresher training of personnel employed in vocational training activities;

— the vocational training of apprentices, without prejudice to the power of the State to regulate the employment relationship of apprentices by legislation;

— work sites and school sites;

— vocational guidance carried out by ENPI (National Agency for Accident Prevention).

Central government remained responsible, however, for assistance and the funding of special projects implemented by regions because of major local imbalances between labour supply and demand.

The decree also abolished the 'technical education consortia', transferring their tasks, personnel and assets to regions, with the exception of guidance tasks which were transferred to schools districts.

As can be seen, these measures did not prevent central government from taking responsibility for employment problems of particular national importance.

The employment-training contract

3.1.4
The extraordinary measures introduced by the State to balance labour supply and demand include Law 285 of 1 June 1977 on measures to promote youth employment, as amended and supplemented by Law 479/78.

Law 285/77 launched the 'employment-training contracts'.

This law, which was part and parcel of measures offering incentives to employers recruiting young people registered on a special placement list, was important because it gave regions express responsibility for promoting and authorizing training schemes in enterprise and consortia of enterprises.

The continuing youth employment crisis following the tripartite agreement (government-unions-employers) of 22 January 1983 led to Law 79/83 under which employers were entitled temporarily (one year) to recruit young people aged between 15 and 29 by name under fixed-term contracts having training aims.

Law 863/84 was a further measure to encourage youth employment and regulated employment-training contracts. This special form of contract is regulated by Article 3 of the law.

Under this law public economic agencies and companies and their consortia which have no laid-off workers at the time of applying and have not made large-scale redundancies in the 12 months prior to the application may recruit by name:

- young people aged between 15 and 29, extended to 32 for women;
- who are taken on directly by firms by 'recruitment by name';
- and subject to fixed-term contracts (maximum length of 24 months).

At the end of the contract the company may decide whether to continue or suspend the employment relationship with the young person. Training plans do not need to be submitted except in the case of employers intending to apply for financial grants from the region.

These features make it extremely difficult to quantify the amount of these funds since they are not included in any statistical survey because of the vastness of the field involved and the problem of gaining access to the accounts of private companies.

However, expenditure on vocational training by companies and in particular by large companies has undoubtedly increased over the years because private bodies are making increasing use of Community or at least public types of funding to pursue a twofold objective:

— qualification of their personnel for the achievement of different in-house objectives (company reorganization, restructuring, etc.);

— use of funds outside their own budgets to meet their own costs.

The outline Law of 21 December 1978 on vocational training: the predominant role of the regions

3.1.5
Training started to become more important at the end of the 1970s after the economic boom, the serious economic and social crisis and the collapse of old values and the consolidation of new values.

Leading firms, after the problems caused by the collapse of the old Taylorian production model and the introduction of new models of labour organization, concentrated on workers' quality of life and became aware of the social function of companies both as users of services and as guarantors of the human and vocational advancement of workers.

The need to govern a system which had become so complex and turbulent in such a short period of time made it necessary to set in motion a gradual decentralization of administrative tasks to more comparable local bodies more able to tackle and solve problems in the short or long term.

Law 845 of 21 December 1978, 'outline law on vocational training', provided the first complete regulation of the national vocational training system and defined the tasks of the State, the regions and local authorities and of both sides of industry, enterprises and their consortia and agencies having vocational training as their main objective.

The law states that training is an instrument of education and advancement, takes place in keeping with economic planning objectives and is intended to promote employment, production and the development of labour organization in line with scientific and technological progress (Article 1).

Having mentioned this planning aspect, Article 3 defines the powers and functions of the regions which, in brief, are to prepare multi-annual and annual plans for the implementation of vocational training activities through harmonious dialogue between a plurality of partners who have differing and complementary functions.

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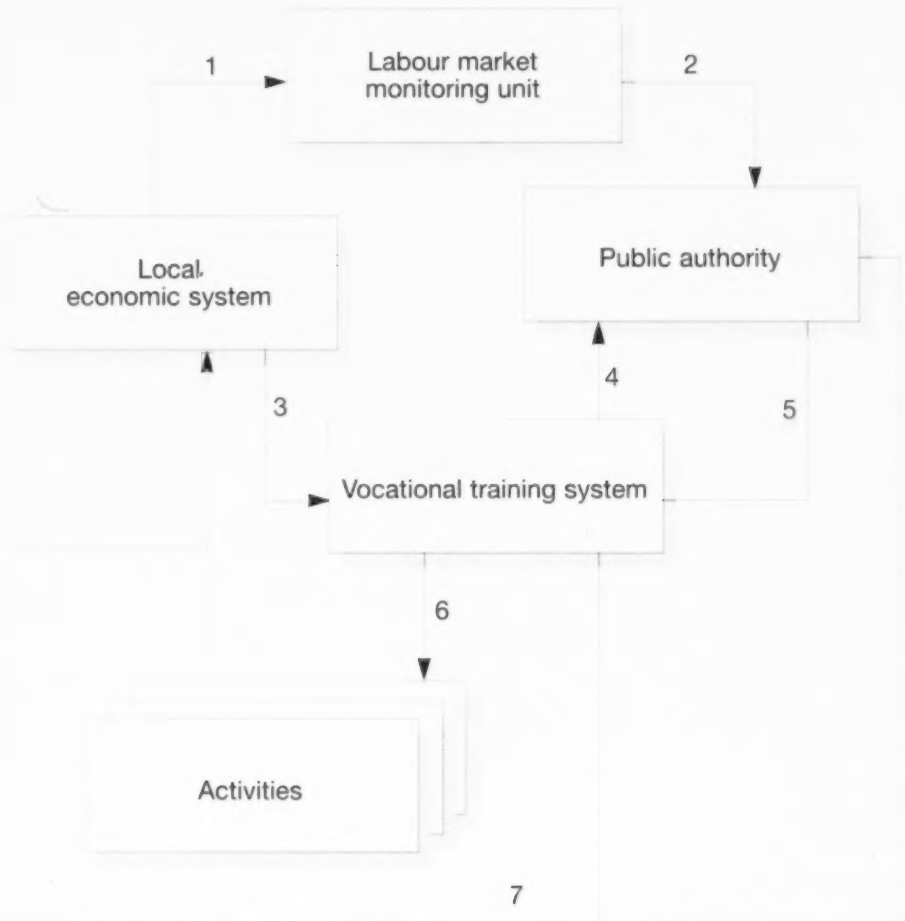
3.1.6
Planning is therefore one of the essential components for the operation of the 'cycle of surveys and analyses of needs, planning of training schemes, design of course activities and supervision of the schemes proposed' as set out in the following diagram.

Model of the cycle: Analysis of the needs, planning, design and evaluation of vocational training activities



Source: ISFOL.

Key
(1) Surveys of:
- employment trends
- sectors
- occupational profile developments.

(2) Data and information for action.
(3) Information for training design:
- technological systems
- organizational systems
- vocational content
- entry requirements.

(4) Information on feasibility.
(5) Planning, choice of objectives, costs, resources.
(6) Design and preparation of training schemes.
(7) Feedback from market take-up.

Training activities must have a cyclical and modular nature and use appropriate systems of alternance between training experience and work experience (Article 7/Law 845 — planning of teaching). Curricula should also be based on initial multi-skilling and subsequent specialization.

Qualifying examinations

3.1.7
Vocational training courses leading to a vocational qualification, end with final examinations to ascertain whether trainees have reached a satisfactory standard. The final examinations for the certificate of qualification, as set out in Article 14 (certificate of qualification) within the same Law 845/78, take place in the presence of examining boards which are constituted in the manner set out in regional laws and must contain:

(a) experts appointed by the local offices of the Ministries of Education and Labour and Social Security;

(b) experts appointed by workers' union organizations and employers' associations.

Regions issue a certificate to trainees deemed to have reached a satisfactory standard, which placement offices consider as valid qualifications for work and for integration into the employers' grading structure. These certificates are also proof of eligibility for public-sector employment competitions.

Courses consist of a related set of practical and theoretical activities and may include stages or periods of practical work in enterprise. They consist of one or more cycles and in no case more than four cycles each lasting no more than 600 hours.

The cycle is a period of training having a modular structure for a user group having the same vocational orientation and the same level of theoretical and practical skills and is aimed at the achievement of a predetermined training objective. Attendance of more than four cycles without the interposition of appropriate work experience is not admissible, except in the case of trainees having physical, mental or sensory disabilities (Article 8, Law 845/78 — types of activity).

Teaching staff for vocational training

3.1.8
As regards teaching staff, the outline law states that staff must be placed on the regional registers and that their pay and legal status is established on the basis of a national union agreement between the regional authorities, the government and the most representative union organizations.

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Vocational training teachers are guaranteed:

— teaching freedom;

— the development of vocational skills through technical, educational and cultural refresher courses.

In the case of the staff of agencies to which training has been contracted out, payments must be similar to those made to regional staff.

The teachers of agencies, associations, limited companies, enterprises or consortia of enterprises have contracts and pay conditions which differ in accordance with the national labour agreement being used.

Management of vocational training

3.1.9
In Italy the vocational training system has a plurality of management. Each region may adopt different solutions for the management of vocational training, which can be summarized under two main headings:

(a) public management through:

— direct management by regions or regional institutions;
— management delegated to local authorities (provinces, communes and their consortia or mountain communities);
— mixed management including direct and delegated management;

(b) convention-regulated management:

in order to implement the training schemes set out in the three-year plan and the annual programme, regions may enter into conventions with bodies associated with democratic organizations of employees, self-employed workers and managers, with associations having training and social aims, with enterprises and their consortia and with the cooperative movement.

The bodies listed above have to satisfy the following requirements if they are to be eligible for conventions:

1. they must have vocational training as their aim;
2. they must have suitable premises, organizational abilities and equipment;
3. they must not be profit-making bodies;
4. they must guarantee the social auditing of activities by appropriate committees set up on an *ad hoc* basis by regions;
5. they must apply the relevant national labour agreement for staff;
6. they must publish annual accounts for each centre of activity;
7. they must agree to regional supervision of the proper use of the funds allocated, which may be conducted by inspection.

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There are different arrangements and situations as regards the relationship between public and convention-regulated management:

— some regions make management by agencies into an auxiliary measure to make up for gaps in public management or for the temporary replacement of public management, leaving the choice up to regional authorities;

— others place public and private schemes on a par leaving regions, however, a fairly wide margin of discretion to choose between these two options.

ISFOL (Institute for Workers' Vocational Development) is responsible for supervising and providing technical assistance for the regions. The regions and ISFOL must submit an annual report to the Ministry of Labour and Social Security on the current state of vocational training and plans for future activities.

New schemes must be based on a number of principles, including:

1. simplifying the present structure of the vocational training system, i.e. differentiating between long-term general education and initial skill training schemes implemented for the most part by the school system and short and medium-term qualification, requalification and refresher schemes implemented by the regions;

2. using help from enterprise to supplement the planning of regional measures;

3. enhancing the central role of local authorities and both sides of industry.

The scope for innovation provided by recent legislation should make it possible to improve the relationship between regions and the Ministry of Education (central and local offices) so that those resources and methods needed to provide closer links between the school system and the regional vocational training system can be located.

Law 845/78 also contains some aspects of political and social importance.

It should be borne in mind, for instance, that vocational training schemes:

— are open to all citizens who have completed compulsory education;

— are also open to foreigners resident for work or training purposes in accordance with the international agreements and laws in force.

The exercise of vocational training activities is free (Article 2).

CEDEFOP

Enterprise as a training partner

3.1.10
The outline law recognizes enterprise as a partner able to provide specific training: qualification, requalification, specialization, refresher and advanced training, vocational re-education and the training of people with physical or sensory disabilities.

Enterprise is seen as an important partner able to supplement and support the training activities of centres by providing plant and equipment for the conduct of practical skill training and work experience periods and for the conduct of study and work alternance systems.

Vocational training and collective bargaining

3.1.11
The law also states that training schemes must abide by the principles of collective bargaining: 'regions may regulate by law the planning, implementation and funding of vocational training activities and the procedures for the achievement of training aims, abiding by the principles underlying collective bargaining' (Article 4).

At present the general situation is that participation by enterprise and both sides of industry in the planning and in particular the management of training suffers from cultural imbalances and the differing extents to which firms are located in areas.

Participation leads to less controversy and conflict; the mechanical view of training as a 'compensation chamber' for the short or long-term problems of enterprise has declined in favour of a view of training as a lever for the vocational advancement of workers and the competitiveness of enterprise.

While this is true of State-controlled companies and major industry, it is less true or not true at all of small and medium-sized enterprises depending on whether they are members of efficient trade associations.

Reform of the outline law — working hypotheses

3.1.12
With the passage of time, some aspects of the outline law on vocational training (845/78) have become outdated. This does not mean, however, that Law 845/78 is no longer valid, although many people feel that the law needs to be brought into line with new developments. ISFOL has already completed initial work to produce a draft law for the reform of Law 845/78.

The new approach is to consider vocational training from a systemic and integrated point of view and to offer organic regulations covering all the other subsystems such as labour market monitoring, guidance, measures to promote employment and enterprise culture, links with the school system and links with enterprise and representatives of both sides of industry.

While working on this approach, ISFOL supplied a range of information representative of the overall strategic framework to the technical and scientific committee set up on *ad hoc* basis.

The key areas of the draft of the new outline law can be summarized as follows:

— formulation of a unitary process for the planning and evaluation of training and employment policies and the enhancement of the planning role of regions;

— creation of a recurrent and personalized system of vocational training;

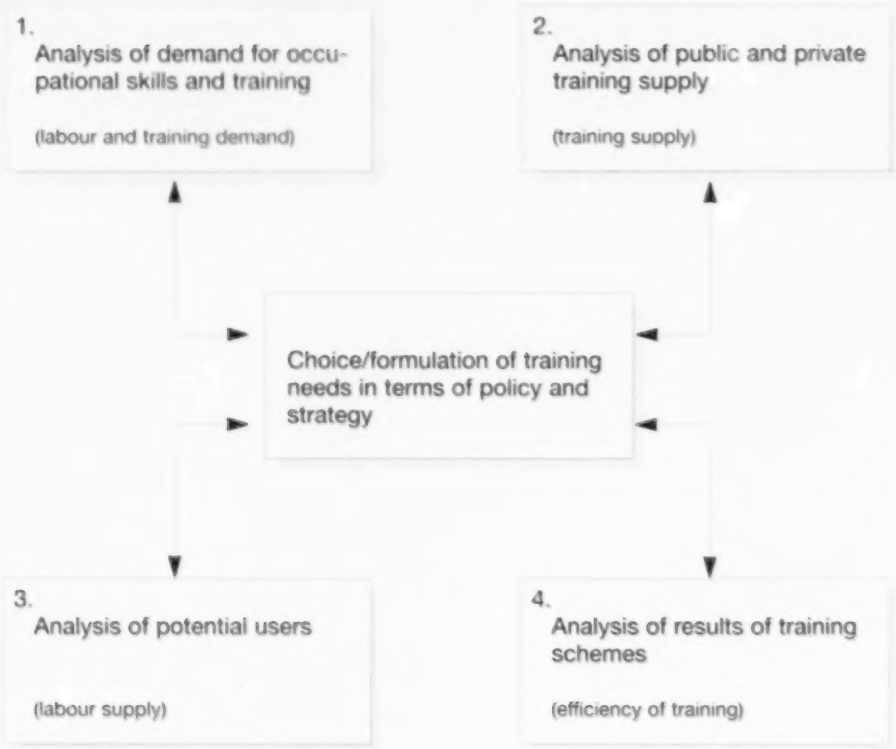
— promotion of areas of interaction in the 'agency system' of training facilities;

— formulation of automatic mechanisms allowing users to move between vocational training and the school system;

— strengthening of the Ministry of Labour's coordination role.

Planning is therefore based on a unitary logic and a single formal act taking account of four aspects relating to both functions and processes.

Stages of data acquisition



Source: ISFOL.

This entails two new directions:

— the strategic and therefore multi-annual planning of regions must cover the whole span of regional employment policies and must be formulated jointly with the various regional partners involved;

— the role of the regions is essentially to guide, supervise, draw strands together and coordinate the increased spectrum of regulations; the increase in and differentiation of the training demand and the multiplicity of the training supply highlight the need for planning, coordination and monitoring and evaluation.

3.2 Financial aspects

Law 845 of 21 December 1978 (outline law on vocational training) is the central reference point for the current system of public funding of vocational training at national level.

In particular:

— the Ministry of Labour meets its own operating needs from the Rotation Fund, the Fund for the Supplementary Funding of Special Projects and the Workers' Mobility Fund;

— the regions draw funds for the implementation of activities from the Common Fund or from their own budgets.

Rotation Fund

3.2.1
In order to supplement the financial resources made available by regions or other bodies, Article 25 of Law 845/78 establishes a Rotation Fund making it easier for vocational training projects formulated by public or private bodies and targeted on specific employment opportunities to obtain funding from the European Social Fund.

As is known, ESF funds can be obtained only if there is national co-funding supplementing the EC subvention.

The Rotation fund, which is an independently administered fund managed outside of the budget under Article 9 of Law 1041 of 25 November 1971 (non-budget administration in respect of State authorities), draws its funds from two thirds of the increased income deriving from the increase in the rate (0.30%) of the supplementary contribution paid for compulsory insurance against involuntary unemployment.

Payments into the fund are made by INPS (National Institute for Social Security).

In order to be eligible for funding from the Rotation Fund — and therefore from the European Social Fund — projects prepared by public and private organizations and submitted to regions must include training activities targeted on specific employment opportunities.

The regions authorize the forwarding of applications for ESF grants via the Ministry of Labour.

As set out in Article 21, the expenditure ceiling within which each region may submit applications for grants is laid down yearly by the Comitato Interministeriale per la Programmazione Economica (CIPE — Joint Ministerial Committee for Economic Planning) in accordance with parameters laid down by the Interregional Committee set out in Law 281/70.

Following the approval of applications for EC grants, financial aid from the Rotation Fund is decided by joint ministerial decree (Ministry of Labour and Ministry of the Treasury).

Fund for the Supplementary Funding of Special Projects

3.2.2
The regions of southern Italy may make use of the financial resources for special project management set out in Article 26 of Law 845/78 in order to supplement the funding of vocational training initiatives implemented by these regions in cases where there is a major local imbalance between supply and demand.

Article 18(h) defines the powers of the Ministry of Labour as regards this funding.

The main measures which may receive supplementary special project funding are, in accordance with circular No 69/86 of that ministry:

— schemes intended to promote new business creation through the training of development agents and grants for young entrepreneurs launching new businesses;

— advanced vocational training schemes intended to help young people enter the labour market or to retrain adults;

— management of mobility measures;

— training for the handicapped;

— training activities coming under the heading of positive action for women.

The Fund for the Supplementary Funding of Special Projects (Article 26) — an independently administered fund managed outside of the budget under Article 9 of Law 1041 of 25 November 1971 — draws its funds from one third of the increased income deriving from the increase in the rate of the supplementary contribution paid for compulsory insurance against involuntary unemployment; the remaining two thirds finance the Rotation Fund.

Payments to the fund are made by INPS (National Institute for Social Security). Payments from the fund are decided by the Ministry of Labour together with the Ministry of the Treasury.

Fund for Workers' Mobility

3.2.3
The funding of training activities for which the State is responsible as set out in Article 18 of Law 845 takes place through the Fund for Workers' Mobility established by Article 28 of Law 675 of 12 August 1977 (Measures for the coordination of industrial policy, restructuring, redeployment and sectoral development).

As set up, the fund — managed independently and outside the budget — receives 50% of its finances from the Cassa Integrazione Guadagni (CIG — Earnings Supplement Fund).

Since the entry into force of Law 845/78, there has also been an allocation, entered under the appropriate heading of the Ministry of Labour's budget (entry No 8056), whose amount is decided annually in the finance law.

The main initiatives supported by this fund include:

— the retraining schemes set out in Law 675/77;

— the funding of training for Italian workers abroad;

— study, research, documentation and experimentation;

— supplementary funding of training projects approved for grants from EU funds.

Common Fund

3.2.4
The Common Fund, set up by Law 281/70, is the fundamental channel through which regions obtain funds to cover their current expenditure.

According to Article 8 of Law 281, this fund, entered under an expenditure heading of the Ministry of the Treasury budget (entry No 5 926) was financed by setting aside a specific percentage of certain taxes (15% of the manufacturing tax on mineral oils, 25% of the consumer tax on tobacco, 75% of the manufacturing tax on spirits, beers, sugar, gas). It was distributed among the various ordinary-statute regions by the Interregional Committee set up by Law 281/70 on the basis of parameters relating to resident population, land area, rate of emigration outside regional territory, level of unemployment and per capita burden of the supplementary tax on income.

After the major amendments introduced by Law 356/76, the current dynamics of the Common Fund are linked to trends in the rate of inflation, using the percentage appropriation from the manufacturing tax on mineral oils as a manoeuvring point, while the breakdown between regions is calculated taking proportional rates for the year 1981 as a basis.

The fund, which finances a whole range of regional activities, including a proportion of vocational training activities (Article 22 of Law 845/78) is entered under Title I of regional budgets (income from regional taxes, from revenue from public taxation or proportions thereof allocated to regions by way of distribution of the Common Fund as set out in Article 8 of Law 281/70), category 02 (proportions of taxes allocated to regions); it is therefore included in overall income and is then distributed in accordance with the needs of the various regional initiatives.

Regional funds

3.2.5
In addition to State and EC funds, vocational training may benefit from additional subventions from regions' own funds.

Regional funds are made up of income from the State whose use is not restricted — including a proportion of the Common Fund — and income from regional taxation (tax on regional concessions, regional traffic tax, etc.) and from other different sources.

These funds may be used:

— to supplement initiatives already receiving finance from other sources or to fund initiatives of a general nature and level I and II activities for which no EC aid is available;

— provide grants for a range of activities resulting from strictly local needs (i.e. training of regional personnel, social workers, kindergarten workers, fishery rangers, forestry personnel, etc.).

Special funds

3.2.6
In parallel with the sources of funds for vocational training described up to now, there is a whole range of other channels which are used to meet the financial needs raised by requirements of a permanent or temporary nature.

For the most part these take the form of funds.

The most important funds include:

— the National Health Fund which was established in 1978 with the entry into force of Law 833 of 23 December 1978 (establishment of the National Health Service), a proportion of which is set aside and distributed annually among the regions by decision of CIPE for the financing of all training and refresher training (Article 47) for personnel employed by the National Health Service (medical staff, non-medical staff, managers);

— the National Innovation Fund, the funds set aside for the implementation of integrated Mediterranean programmes and Community interest programmes, etc.

These funds may come from the EC (Structural Funds and Line 551), the State and the regions.

Among the State's special financial measures, particular mention needs to be made of Law 492 of 12 November 1988 and the subsequent Ministry of Labour and Social Security Decree of 9 May 1989, 'Definition of the objectives of innovation in regional training systems, of indicators useful in measuring the progress of such innovation and of admissible categories of action'.

Through these laws, the Ministry of Labour and Social Security established a fund to finance schemes aimed at innovation in regional training systems.

Law 492 is therefore a financial incentive intended to promote innovation in regional training systems where 'the regional training system is in particular understood to cover training facilities, including those of agencies under conventions with regions, human resources, teaching organization and methods, the planning of training, supervisory systems and monitoring and evaluation mechanisms' (Article 1 of Ministerial Decree of 9 May 1989).

The innovations which it is intended to promote and finance include:

(a) improving the quality of regional planning;

(b) developing links with the school system;

(c) forging closer links with industry;

(d) achieving a greater degree of transparency and efficiency in the management of activities;

(e) improving the contribution of vocational training to active labour policies, with particular reference to disadvantaged groups;

(f) strengthening the contribution made by vocational training to the dissemination of new technology in production systems, with particular reference to small and medium-sized enterprise;

(g) strengthening guidance activities in keeping with vocational training.

The achievement of these measures is dependent on an overall redeployment of the skills available or the formulation of new occupational profiles such as:

— guidance workers in the area of vocational training providing links with the school system and acting as sensors of the different needs of the public and private system and of the expectations and standards of education of users, particularly those with average to high standards of education;

— workers able to use computer instrumentation to design audio and video teaching software prior to the implementation of 'open learning' distance training systems;

— workers for groups marginalized from society and/or the handicapped.

The capital of the National Innovation Fund, together with the various supplements approved by regional coordination and the technical evaluation unit, is estimated at some LIT 470 billion, of which 90% is being allocated to the regions during 1991.

Private funds

3.2.7
In parallel with public training facilities, there is a whole range of initiatives more closely linked with the production world.

The organization of training which has emerged and developed in this context is important in this respect.

The production world has started to become aware of the importance of training and in-company training including induction, qualification, retraining, updating and advancement schemes.

At their various conferences in 1989 and 1990, industrialists and small businessmen spoke of training activities more in keeping with the size of companies.

While a number of major firms launched publicity campaigns, the 'business training system' failed to take off and during 1989 and the first few months of 1990 firms were paying less attention to vocational training.

Attention needs to be drawn to continuing training despite the European Commission's urgings; firms' willingness to tackle the topics of management and business training has increased: this is borne out by the large number of management training schools, the increase in the number of Masters degrees and the increase in investment in this sector, especially in the south, as a result of Laws 64/86 and 44/86.

State and regional expenditure on vocational training

3.2.8
Current unofficial figures show that the financial appropriations of the Ministry of Labour and Social Security for the three-year period 1991-93 are some LIT 2000 billion, including some LIT 750 million for 1991 and some LIT 1 250 million for the 1992-93 period.

Regions set aside a total appropriation for vocational training in their budgets of LIT 2 507.2 billion in 1990 as against LIT 1 952.6 billion in 1988 and LIT 2 105.1 billion in 1989. There has therefore been a constant increase over the three years: the percentage increase was more contained — and slightly above the rate of inflation — in 1989 (+7.8%), more marked in 1990 (+19.1%); over the three years there has been a fairly substantial total increase of 28.4%.

Considering the appropriation trends in terms of constant lire it can be seen that the total increase over the three years has been substantial, reaching a figure of +15.7%. In contrast, looking at the proportion for which this allocation accounts in overall outgoings, there has been a 0.4% decrease over the three years, with a drop of 1.34% in the first year, 1.22% in the second year and a rise of 1.30% in 1990.

The European Social Fund

3.2.9
In 1989 European Social Fund appropriations amounted to ECU 3 523.92 million representing an increase of 10.9% over the previous year; payments to Italy totalled LIT 909 321 million and Italy accounted for a percentage of 17.2%. This figure shows a decline in Italy's ability to acquire EC funding.

Italy is in a disadvantaged position with respect to the other Member States, with a reduction in funding in both percentage terms and as an absolute value, dropping from LIT 953.3 billion in 1987 to LIT 909.6 billion in 1988 and LIT 909.3 billion in the most recent year (the 1991 ISFOL report does not provide figures on the overall ESF allocation to Italy for 1990).

The distribution of allocations taking account of the geographical and sectoral limitations set out by law, has led generally in the EU to a slight decrease in amounts for young people (73% as against 75% in the previous year) due to a decrease in funding for young people in the more developed regions and a similar decline in funding for adults (22% as against 23.8%).

In Italy there has been an opposite trend as young people accounted for 78% of the allocation, while adults accounted for 17.7% as against 18.3% in 1988.

The breakdown by geographical area is increasingly marked and the trend towards favouring underdeveloped regions has led at EU level to an increase from 45.7% to 46.3% of appropriations and in Italy from 47.8% to 48.3%.

EC legislation lays down 40% as a minimum funding threshold for disadvantaged regions.

One of the most important objectives of the Structural Funds for Italy is 'to promote the development and upgrading of underdeveloped regions'. In keeping with this objective an overall development plan has been prepared by the Ministry for Extraordinary Measures in Southern Italy, together with the Ministry of Agriculture and the Ministry of Labour and in cooperation with the regions of southern Italy.

The importance of the region in this policy can be seen from the decentralization set out in Law 64/86 which lays down mechanisms for planning action in the south, forms of participation by the region in development policy, the coordination of all public programmes in the south and the supplementary nature of extraordinary appropriations with respect to national appropriations.

The overall financial picture includes:

— a request for funds from the Regional Development Fund for the measures set out in the plan for a total of LIT 9 100 billion at constant values;

— a request for funds from the Agricultural Development Fund for a total of LIT 775 billion at constant values;

— a request for funds from the European Social Fund for a total of LIT 2 404 billion at constant values;

— financial participation by the EIB totalling LIT 1 245 billion.

By way of conclusion, it seems that the new procedure established by current EC regulations is strengthening regional planning and is enhancing the system of interconnections.

Conclusions

3.2.10
The aim of this section has been to provide an outline of main developments in the areas of regulations and funding which is readily comprehensible to a European citizen.

The main developments and main administrative procedures surrounding the vocational training system contain a whole range of minor statutory and administrative developments which are useful for analytical study and aimed at a more advanced readership: the annexed bibliography is an invaluable source and an efficient reference for this purpose.

It should be stressed that the key to this section lies in the State's constant attempts to implement the terms of Articles 117 and 118 of the Constitution relating to the delegation of powers over vocational training to the regions within a framework of organized and rational progression.

This task has, however, been carried out while taking full responsibility for situations which as a result of their extent and the financial resources to be mobilized as well as institutional credibility, cannot be left to the individual regions. Laws promoting youth employment whether in the form of special projects or new laws provide significant examples such as the employment-training contract.

The reference point formed by the outline Law of 21 December 1978 on vocational training, in addition to circumscribing and imposing a system on this sector for the first time, provided the regions with the resources needed to set out on the adventure of decentralization and bring it to fruition. Not all the Italian regions have the same standards of service even though they come within a regional framework which, albeit different as regards parameters of development and excellence, is comparable in statutory terms.

The different level of socioeconomic development and the disadvantaged nature of some regions of the south are historical facts which legislative measures and the massive ordinary and extraordinary funding provided by the State and the EC throughout the postwar period and especially over the last 10 years have found difficult to eradicate.

A conviction which is shared by everyone, not just those looking for training (companies) but also those supplying training (regions, State, private operators), is that the national training system and therefore the regional training system must adopt new statutory and administrative procedures to cope with the new challenges, not least the problems arising from the full implementation of the single market.

At national level serious problems such as the cost of labour need to be tackled since they are currently preventing a solution to the problems of the legal framework of training.

Uncertainty about the costs which these challenges will entail are an objective hindrance to companies attempting to plan investment in human resources.

Central government is currently making enormous efforts to introduce innovation into regional systems and the national information system, since without transparent data and information it is difficult to plan anything beyond the 'tried and tested'.

'Tried and tested' includes all those traditional training activities which are repeated every year without any check to find out whether they are meeting the needs of the local labour market and new and emerging occupational profiles.

TRENDS AND PROSPECTS

4.1 The complexity of the vocational training system

'Investing in human resources through training' is a cultural obligation and a strategic resource which most of Italy's social and economic partners now see as the way of tackling the competitive 'challenge'.

The training schemes on offer, while not always comparable, nevertheless highlight a situation which is fairly broad-ranging and dynamic in Italy.

The multiplicity of vocational training users and trainers, while demonstrating a great deal of liveliness and a wealth of measures and experiments, needs a more standard and structured framework.

The fields of training

4.1.1
The tasks for which the various segments of the vocational training system are responsible lie in three areas:

— more skilled work activities;
— activities traditionally defined as operational;
— continuing training activities.

More skilled work activities

4.1.2
Intermediate qualifications between the secondary school certificate and the degree are a new development in Italy.

This is a strategic area requiring improved consistency between the training on offer and the needs of the production system in order to offset the lack of intermediate qualifications which in other countries provide genuine competitive advantages and to compensate for the lack of postgraduate training.

Operational activities

4.1.3
The higher standards of qualification and quality needed by the technologies now being used and the requirement of autonomy in small-scale production units are raising problems in this area.

There is also a need for measures designed to qualify young people leaving school after compulsory education (although there have been reforms) or who do not manage to complete the first two years of upper secondary education.

Continuing training

4.1.4
It seems likely that the demand from individuals and from enterprises will be a further factor in the diversification of vocational training through experiments, on the borders between work and non-work, which may offer many people their only opportunity to catch up on the basic knowledge which is needed to obtain a job or to improve their prospects.

Increasing demand from small firms, training linked to their entrepreneurial ability, the spread of new technology into non-industrial sectors, the possibility of training providing a number of skills in different sectors, training required for medium-term changes, etc., all entail changes in the content of training and the ways in which this content is passed on: these contents and methods differ substantially from those of traditional vocational training related to work as an employee in major industrial firms.

4.2 Urgent needs: proposed strategies

Changes in and critical areas of training supply and demand need adequate and urgent answers; these answers must take account of institutional aspects and the ways in which schemes are structured.

Institutional strategies include:

1. The formulation of a systematic planning and evaluation process for training and employment policies, involving multi-annual strategic planning taking account of the three tiers of government: European, national and regional (and taking account of the potential offered by Law 142 on local autonomy) so that guidance and coordination tasks can be undertaken at national level (by EU and national institutions) and administration, coordination and overall planning can take place at regional level by the institutions mentioned above, regional institutions and managers of activities.

2. The reinforcement, as mentioned above, of the guidance and coordination role of the Ministry of Labour especially in view of the coming single European market and the need for national models able to put a stop to the worsening problem of inequalities as discussed above.

3. The establishment of a national information system through which evaluation procedures for regional systems and the national system as a whole can be set in motion; this system should also make it possible to evaluate ESF operating programmes so that consistent regional and national planning can be achieved through an overall knowledge of types of action.

4. The establishment of a guidance system as a resource to help with the transition from school to work, taking account of the training and information needs of young people and adults.

5. The creation of a continuing, diversified and personalized system of vocational training able to cope with the demand for training in its current structure, promoting links between the training and school systems and between the training system and universities.

6. The promotion of areas of interaction between the regional training system and the production system, encouraging operational and not just sequential links between these two systems.

7. The establishment of 'bridges' allowing transition between vocational training and school for the purposes of continuing training.

8. The abandonment of the logic of training standards as regulated by Article 18(a) so that the concept itself and the practice of training standards can be reformulated, starting from a critical review of experience in the various systems and working towards the production of a standard (process and product) model and the dissemination of methods.

9. The review and reformulation of those training/work routes which involve a substantial number of young people.

10. The dissemination of the 'agency' model of training facilities so that vocational training centres can provide answers in keeping with a complex demand.

11. The formulation of university-level training routes for those in charge of training and for trainers and guidance workers.

12. The preparation of a southern Italy project based on the cooperation of all those involved in training (Ministries of Labour, Extraordinary Measures and Education; regions and social forces) and able to introduce innovations into basic training and the training of system managers and to provide the intermediate qualifications needed for the renewal of some service areas (i.e. health, cultural assets and tourism). There is also a need for a project to create or develop the necessary support facilities for training (pilot centres), links between training and employment (guidance centres, labour market monitoring units) and support for entry into the labour market (agencies, local offices) able to operate as a network. Interregional cooperation in a southern Italy project is becoming an indispensable factor in allowing training or work opportunities outside southern Italy. Training and work laboratories could also be launched in the south as a way of providing new opportunities and work experience.

These 12 points, set out in the ISFOL report, represent the next steps to be taken to make our system more competitive.

4.3 European integration

Recent regulations equating higher level qualifications are a first and very important reflection of the fact that European integration will be the greatest stimulus for renewal in the 1990s.

EU programmes are also acquiring increasing importance in our training system and are becoming more substantial and finding greater scope in schools, universities and training centres.

Italy, although it has not reached French and British levels, is showing increasing interest in the COMETT II project. A total of 76 main contractor projects have been submitted and approved after initial selection; 15 of these are consortia, 23 are graduate and enterprise and university staff exchanges and 37 are multimedia courses and products, including a pilot project.

In the case of Eurotecnet II, the 34 projects submitted by Italy are in line with France (35 projects) and Germany (37 projects).

Italy is actively participating in the European network of training initiatives. During the three-year period, 1988-91, Italy had 50 projects in the network relating to all the priority issues.

Participation in the DELTA programme has also been positive, acquiring 25% of the budget set aside and acting as main contractor and/or high-level partner in important projects, such as:

— **OLEW** (open learning experimental workshop) (line 3);

— **EPOS** (European PTT open learning service); this project is intended to establish a telematic distance learning service operated by six expert European telecommunications operators, including SIP (line 2);

— **Not-Lab**: a project to develop an expert system for monitoring user characteristics during the learning process (line 2);

— **EIOL** (European infrastructure for open learning) in which ISFOL is directly involved as a subcontractor responsible for one of the sections relating in particular to a comparative analysis of the Italian and German training systems (line 5).

Task forces to chair and assist and advise with participation in the NOW, Horizon, Euroform, FORCE and LINGUA projects have also been set up.

4.4 The culture of change

Over the last 25 years, change has subjected company strategies, organizational trends and environmental dynamics to considerable stress. The regulated universe of the 1960s (growth, stable structures, social integration) was superseded by the unstable universe of the 1970s (deflation, explosion of domestic and international conflict, failure and collapse of previous structures). Recent years have seen exceptional technological acceleration, especially as a result of the new applications of electronics, informatics and in general the information sciences.

These events, which have changed the values, organizational standards and relationships codified by experience as well as the vocational skills which can be used and the rules of success, have entailed painful changes not just to political and social systems and company organization but by individuals as well.

Although adaptation to these new requirements has raised problems and difficulties, the foundations have also been laid for a widespread ability to adapt and a greater willingness to generate and use change and not just to suffer it passively.

Change is consequently becoming the new standard, the means through which the various forces in society can achieve their objectives and ensure that they stay competitive.

In other words, individual innovations are linked to one another in an evolving pattern which, by gradually accumulating micro-changes, produces new and complex forms and leads to their consolidation as replacements for previous forms.

In this evolving pattern, therefore, the objective of the system is not to keep structures intact and stable: change is not just a disturbance to be controlled but a resource to be used to make action more efficient through appropriate structural changes.

Training in change

4.4.1

It is now becoming clearer that the dynamics of change are faster than the time which individuals take to adapt to these changes.

Abilities which have become standardized with the passage of time do not provide workers with adequate answers to social changes which have produced ever more complex professional and working contexts.

People therefore have to identify and build on other resources which mirror and make the most of their own abilities in order to deal with the new requirements of flexibility, creativity, mobility and decision-making.

Training aimed at change must make individuals aware of their ability to move so that they do not merely follow behavioural models defined in the past in relation to consolidated standards of success.

When organizations are changing, the old has to be integrated with the new with the result that the whole process becomes very complex. It is at this stage that individuals or structures often suffer.

For instance, the introduction of new technology entails the introduction of new occupational profiles, new techniques, new organizations and new methods which have to interact with existing profiles, organizations and jobs. The inconsistency to which this leads (the meeting of the old and new) gives rise to problematic situations in which the individual experiences feelings of inadequacy and senses the need for change.

Training then becomes a need not just on the part of the organization so that it can keep up with innovative developments but also on the part of the individual or group attempting to adapt to the change. It is becoming increasingly important to design, put forward, supply and conduct training which is in keeping with suppliers' needs. The more workers choose and want training, the more effective it will be and the better the impact it will have on work. Standard training, identical for everyone, is increasingly less desirable, especially in the case of initial training offered without differentiation to the various groups of users who will carry out different trades in many areas of activity. This training must be designed so that people can find new keys allowing them to interpret the context and acquire new operating resources allowing them to work in ways which are more professional in terms of quality; this does not just mean acquiring new technical expertise, but also constant updating and mastery of the macro- and micro-system and the ability to anticipate an awareness of one's own resources in relation to and against a labour market which is constantly changing.

Training 'in change' should also make people aware of the new need to understand relationship systems: integration and interaction in activities which are increasingly in the form of team work or networks.

A further trend, as regards adult training strategies, is the ability to operate in small teams, units, services, etc., in which the technical and organizational features of work are redefined in keeping with the more general context of the structure to which they belong.

This means experimenting with small training labs in which, starting from concrete and tangible problems raised by day-to-day work and from the need to improve and build on activities, the operators of a sector, supported by trainers and monitored by technicians, redesign and put into practice new technical and organizational solutions.

These and other similar initiatives help to make people more active and willing to change.

The new occupations

4.4.2

This propensity is necessary precisely because of the emergence of new professions centred on broad types of production process and science-based methods, problem-solving and problem-setting.

The content of work relates chiefly to activities involving the supervision, maintenance and coordination of various types of process; working tasks are identified largely on the basis of the process being controlled and take little account of other traditional factors (analytical tasks, titles of trades, qualifications in sectors of industry, etc.). Process occupations (automated process operators — plant operators) entail the restructuring of supervisory control activities with operational coordination and maintenance activities. These occupations are differentiated by discipline (computer science, formal lan-

guages, comprehension of processes), applications techniques (control of variants, algorithmic skills) and approaches (diagnostics and problem-solving).

In the case of activities centred on processes of innovation, engineering and maintenance of technical and organizational systems (plant, software, procedures, know-how, etc.), the number of specializations is increasing and the profiles and competences of professionals engaged in the maintenance of technical and organizational systems are being differentiated. What distinguishes these production service occupations (for instance, maintenance specialists) are disciplines (greater theoretical knowledge), applications techniques (statistical and organizational methods in addition to diagnostic and technical action methods) and approaches (systemic or non-systemic, and emergency). In the case of occupations centred on coordination, the function of middle management (systems managers) is to manage a second level of the production process control cycle. Tasks include processes such as production planning, supervision of production progress, optimizing technical and human resources, economic control of management, supervision of the overall parameters of processes (quantity, quality, cost) and the supervision and maintenance of technological and organizational structures.

Many of these processes are becoming computer based and centred on models with greater formal precision which therefore need knowledge of automated information systems and the ability to use these systems and in many cases to design and implement changes.

These occupational profiles in particular maintain the interface between the micro-system assigned to them and the general system (boundary control).

Training as a route

4.4.3

The industrial culture in which we are all immersed is a culture which has been modified in recent years: the rules of the game have to be respected but these rules have to be updated regularly. In a changing society, workers need meta-competences, i.e. competences which fit people up with methods of mobility rather than specific sectoral answers. Depending on the case, these will be methods helping people to use resources, methods of learning so that people can understand what is happening in any situation or place and design methods which provide innovative abilities as regards the processes in which people are engaged.

The training process can no longer simply teach people the standards on which they should model themselves, but must teach them the ability to understand variables and to control, introduce innovations, combine and manage these variables.

Methods of learning become more important than the acquisition of specific knowledge: teaching people to learn rather than to know so that knowledge can be teamed up with expertise. Training is therefore essentially a process linked to the culture of change, i.e. a process accompanying people in the various social and training systems who need to grow, adapt, innovate and change. Training is seen as a route and a method through which people can learn the techniques needed to solve specific problems as well as methods of tackling, anticipating and designing change.

ANNEXES

ANNEX 1

List of acronyms

BDP
Biblioteca documentazione pedagogica
Library of Educational Documentation

CASA
Confederazione Autonoma Sindacati Artigiani
Independent Confederation of Craft Unions

CENSIS
Centro Studi Investimenti Sociali
Centre for Social Investment Studies

CGIL
Confederazione Generale Italiana dei Lavoratori
Italian General Workers' Confederation

CIG
Cassa Integrazione Guadagni
Earnings Supplement Fund

CILO
Centri di Iniziativa Locale per l'Occupazione
Centres for local employment initiatives

CIP
Community interest programmes

CIPE
Comitato Interministeriale per la Programmazione Economica
Joint Ministerial Committee for Economic Planning

CISL
Confederazione Italiana Sindacati Liberi
Italian Confederation of Non-aligned Unions

CNA
Confederazione Nazionale Artigianato
National Craft Enterprise Confederation

Confapi
Confederazione Italiana della piccola e media impresa
Italian Confederation of Small and Medium-sized Enterprises

CR
Consiglio Regionale
Regional Council

CRFP
Centro Regionale di Formazione Professionale
Regional Vocational Training Centre

CEDEFOP

CRI
Comitato Regionale de Indirizzo
Commissione Regionale per l'Impiego
Regional Steering Committee

CUN
Consiglio Universitario Nazionale
National University Council

DL
Decreto Legge
Order in Council

DPR
Decreto Presidente della Repubblica
Decree of the President of the Republic

EAGGF
European Agricultural Guidance and Guarantee Fund

EC
European Community

EIB
European Investment Bank

ENPI
Ente Nazionale per la Prevenzione degli Infortuni
National Accident Prevention Authority

ERDF
European Regional Development Fund

ESF
European Social Fund

FORMEZ
Centro di Formazione e Studi per il Mezzogiorno
Southern Italy Training and Research Centre

GDP
Gross domestic product

GR
Giunta Regionale
Regional Council

IAI
Istituto per l'Addestramento Industriale
Institute for Industrial Training

IMP
Integrated Mediterranean programmes

INPS
Istituto Nazionale per la Previdenza Sociale
National Institute for Social Security

ISFOL
Istituto per lo Sviluppo della formazione professionale dei lavoratori
Institute for the Development of Workers' Vocational Training

ISTAT
Istituto centrale di Statistica
Central Statistics Institute

MISM
Ministero per gli Interventi Straordinari nel Mezzogiorno
Ministry for Special Activities for Southern Italy

MLPS
Ministero del Lavoro e della Previdenza Soziale
Ministry for Employment and Social Security

MPI
Ministero della Pubblica Istruzione
Ministry of Education

OO.SS
Organizzazioni Sindicali
Trade union organizations

SME
Small and medium-sized enterprises

SSS
Scuola Secondaria Superiore
Upper secondary school

UIL
Unione Italiana del Lavoro
Italian Labour Union

VT
Vocational training

CEDEFOP

127

ANNEX 2

Address list of agencies, organizations and training institutions

AIF — Associazione italiana formatori
via Vincenzo Ponti 4
I-20123 Milano
Tel. (39-2) 480 13 20 – Fax (39-2) 48 19 57 56

ANAPIA — Associazione nazionale addestramento professional industria e agricoltura
via A. Toscani 78
I-00152 Roma
Tel. (39-6) 537 26 27 – 531 37 90 – Fax (39-6) 58 20 39 52

ANFFAS — Associazione nazionale famiglie di fanciulli e adulti subnormali
via Emanuele Gianturco 1
I-00196 Roma
Tel. (39-6) 361 15 24 – Fax (39-6) 321 23 83

Apindustrie — Associazione multiprovinciale delle piccole e medie industrie manifatturiere, turistico-alberghiere e di servizi
via Principe Nicola 22
I-95126 Catania
Tel./Fax (39-95) 37 40 77

ASFOR — Associazione per la formazione della direzione aziendale
via Tabacchi 56
I-20136 Milano
Tel. (39-2) 837 62 93 – Fax (39-2) 837 35 61

ASSCO — Associazione fra società e studi di consulenza di direzione ed organizzazione aziendale
via S. Paolo 10
I-20121 Milano
Tel. (39-2) 79 61 57 – Fax (39-2) 76 01 42 82

Associazione centro elis
via L. Fortis 5
I-00159 Roma
Tel. (39-6) 43 53 40 – Fax (39-6) 321 22 59

Biblioteca di documentazione pedagogica
via Buonarroti 10
I-50122 Firenze
Tel. (39-55) 24 11 87 – Fax (39-55) 24 28 84

Casa di carità arti e mestieri
corso B. Brin 26
I-10149 Torino

CENSIS — Fondazione Centro Studi Investimenti Sociali
piazza di Novella 2
I-00199 Roma
Tel. (39-6) 86 09 11 – Fax (39-6) 862 11 36 77

Confapi — Confederazione italiana della piccola e media industria
via della Colonna Antonina 52
I-00186 Roma
Tel. (39-6) 678 24 41 – Fax (39-6) 679 14 88

Confindustria — Confederazione generale dell'industria italiana
Area di sviluppo associativo e formazione
viale dell'Astronomia 30
I-00144 Roma
Tel. (39-6) 590 31 – Fax (39-6) 591 26 15

ECIPA — Ente Confederale istruzione professionale artigianato
via Venezia 15
I-00184 Roma
Tel. (39-6) 482 09 73 – Fax (39-6) 474 45 06

ELEA Olivetti Spa — Formazione Consulenza Direzione e amministrazione
via Nuova 21
I-10010 Burolo (TO)
Tel. (39-125) 575 78 – 57 73 27

ENAIP — Ente nazionale Acli Istruzione Professionale
via G. Marcora 18/20
I-00153 Roma
Tel. (39-6) 584 01 – Fax (39-6) 584 04 57

ENAP — Ente nazionale addestramento professionale
via Palermo 67
I-00184 Roma
Tel. (39-6) 481 58 75 – Fax (39-6) 481 55 43

ENEA — Ente nazionale per la ricerca e lo sviluppo dell-energia nucleare e delle energie alternative
- Direzione centrale personale e sviluppo organizzativo
  viale Regina Margherita 125
  I-00198 Roma
- Unità del progetto formazione
  via Tanaro 5
  I-00198 Roma
  Tel. (39-6) 852 81 – Fax (39-6) 85 28 25 91

ENFAP — Ente nazionale formazione addestramento professionale
Larga Ascianzi 5
I-00198 Roma
Tel. (39-6) 588 42 71 – Fax (39-6) 588 43 26

ENFAPI — Ente Nazionale per la formazione e l'addestramento professionale nell'industria
viale dell'Astronomia 30
I-00187 Roma
Tel. (39-6) 590 31 – Fax (39-6) 590 34 68

ENI — Servizio COFORM — Ente nazionale idrocarburi
piazzale E. Mattei 1
I-00144 Roma
Tel. (39-6) 590 01 – Fax (39-6) 59 00 21 41

ENIPG — Ente nazionale istruzione professionale grafica
via Oslavia 50
I-00195 Roma
Tel. (39-6) 361 21 97 – Fax (39-6) 361 26 06

FORMEZ — Centro di formazione e studi per il Mezzogiorno
via Salaria 229
I-00199 Roma
Tel. (39-6) 848 91 – Fax (39-6) 84 89 32 42

IAFE — Istituto di aggiornamento e formazione Eni
via B. Buozzi 14
I-00040 Castelgandolfo (RM)
Tel. (39-6) 936 12 51 – Fax (39-6) 936 08 79

IAL — Istituto addestramento lavoratori
viale Gorizia 53
I-00198 Roma
Tel. (39-6) 855 45 45

IFAP IRI — Servizi per la formazione
Formazione Consulenza Assistenza tecnica
piazza della Repubblica 59
I-00185 Roma
Tel. (39-6) 48 16 71 – Fax (39-6) 474 12 28 – 481 90 33

Inecoop — Istituto nazionale per l'educazione cooperativa
via Gramsci 14
I-00197 Roma
Tel. (39-6) 321 87 55 – Fax (39-6) 322 66 52

Inforcoop — Istituto nazionale di formazione cooperativa
via G. Tomassetti 12
I-00161 Roma
Tel. (39-6) 86 78 51 – 844 00 78 – 854 94 69 – Fax (39-6) 855 44 45

INIAPA — Istituto nazionale istruzione addestramento professionale artigiani
via Flaminio Ponzo 2
I-00153 Roma
Tel. (39-6) 578 06 54 – Fax (39-6) 575 50 36

INIPA — Istituto nazionale istruzione professionale agricola
via XXIV Maggio 43
I-00187 Roma
Tel. (39-6) 468 21 – Fax (39-6) 468 23 59

Intersind
via C. Colombo 98
I-00147 Roma
Tel. (39-6) 517 51 – Fax (39-6) 517 53 29

IPSOA — Scuola d'impresa
Milanofiori strada 3, Palazzo B 5
I-20090 Assago (Milano)
Tel. (39-2) 57 55 75 54 – Fax (39-2) 825 32 34

IREF — Istituto regionale lombardo di formazione per l'amministrazione pubblica
via Moscova 3
I-20121 Milano
Tel. (39-2) 655 13 51 – Fax (39-2) 657 52 31

IRES — Istituto di ricerche economiche e sociali
via di S. Teresa 23
I-00198 Roma
Tel. (39-6) 841 62 01 – Fax (39-6) 841 41 54

ISFOL — Istituto per lo sviluppo della formazione professionale dei lavoratori
via G.B. Morgagni 33
I-00161 Roma
Tel. (39-6) 44 59 01 – Fax (39-6) 884 58 83

ISTAO — Istituto 'Adriano Olivetti' di studi per la gestione dell'economia e delle aziende
via delle Grazie 67
I-60128 Ancona
Tel. (39-71) 280 50 22 – Fax (39-71) 280 50 21

Istituto Guglielmo Tagliacarne
via Appia Pignatelli 62
I-00178 Roma
Tel. (39-6) 78 05 21 – Fax (39-6) 784 21 36

Istituto Piero Pirelli
viale F. Testi 223
I-20162 Milano
Tel. (39-2) 64 42 34 00 – Fax (39-2) 64 42 92 13

ISTUD Spa — Istituto Studi direzionali
Corso Umberto I 71
I-28049 Stresa (NO)
Tel. (39-323) 93 38 01 – Fax (39-323) 93 38 05

ISVOR FIAT Spa — Società di sviluppo e addestramento industriale
corso Dante 103
I-10126 Torino
Tel. (39-11) 666 51 11 – Fax (39-11) 666 54 76

LUISS — Scuola di management
via Cosimo De Giorgi 8
I-00158 Roma
Tel. (39-6) 451 03 37 – 418 21 35 – Fax (39-6) 451 28 63

Ministero Industria, Commercio e Artigianato
Direzione generale degli affari generali –
Ufficio organizzazione e metodi
via Molise 2
I-00187 Roma
Tel. (39-6) 470 51 – Fax (39-6) 47 05 21 53

Ministero Lavoro e Previdenza Sociale
Ufficio centrale per l'orientamento e la formazione
professionale dei lavoratori
via Castelfidardo 43
I-00185 Roma
Tel. (39-6) 47 99 71 – Fax (39-6) 444 09 35

Ministero Pubblica Istruzione
viale Trastevere 76
I-00153 Roma
Tel. (39-6) 5 84 91
Direzione generale per l'istruzione tecnica, classica, scientifica e magistrale
Tel. (39-6) 58 49 32 35 – Fax (39-6) 58 49 31 35 – 58 49 24 18

Ministero dell'Università e della Ricerca Scientifica e Tecnologica
Lungo Tevere Thaon Di Revel 76
I-00196 Roma
Tel. (39-6) 32 68 91 – Fax (39-6) 32 68 92 77

Scuola Superiore della Pubblica Amministrazione — SSPA
via dei Robilant 11
I-00196 Roma
Tel. (39-6) 396 26 96

SDA — Scuola di Direzione Aziendale dell'Università L. Bocconi
via Bocconi 8
I-20136 Milano
Tel. (39-2) 583 60 31 – Fax (39-2) 58 36 30 08

ANNEX 3

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ANNEX 4

Glossary of terms

The following brief list of terms and explanations of their use in this monograph has been written by the author. The glossary is not intended as an authoritative terminological work. Reference should be made in this context to CEDEFOP's work on vocational training terminology. Those interested should contact CEDEFOP.

APPRENTICESHIP (Apprendistato)
'Apprenticeship is a special employment relationship by virtue of which employers undertake to impart or to arrange to impart, in their businesses, the teaching needed for the apprentices in their employment to achieve the technical skills needed to become qualified workers, making use of their work in the business itself'.

'The vocational training of apprentices takes place through practical skill training and additional teaching'.

The Law (25 of 19 January 1955) uses the term 'special employment relationship' since it stresses that employers are obliged to impart teaching, i.e. to act as a 'master', and that apprentices are obliged and entitled to learn so that they can acquire the trade and become qualified.

The regions are responsible for the whole apprentice training system, although 'the regulation of the employment relationship' is outside their jurisdiction.

Apprentices account for close on 80% of employees aged between 14 and 19, i.e. almost all the young people entering the labour market immediately after obtaining the compulsory education leaving certificate, especially if it is borne in mind that young workers in this age band also include young people with qualifications from vocational training centres and vocational schools.

The apprenticeship formula is nowadays used predominantly in craft trades.

CONSORTIUM (Consorzio)
Association of several individuals or bodies, linked by common tasks and rights for a specific purpose.

Group of banks and/or finance companies set up to unify placement tasks or broking tasks in the share and debenture field; also agreement between enterprises with a significance similar to a cartel.

EMPLOYMENT-TRAINING CONTRACT (Contratto di formazione-lavoro)
Article 8 of Law 285 of 1 June 1977 states that the training contract must be drawn up in writing and must set out:

1. duration;
2. working hours, which may not be less than 20 hours per week and must allow the young person to attend high-quality supplementary vocational training courses promoted or authorized by the region; total hours, including hours spent attending these vocational training courses, cannot exceed the working hours set out in the contract;

3. methods of conducting training schemes through organized vocational courses intended to ensure that the young person reaches an appropriate training level at the end of the relationship;
4. legal status and pay.

During the period of the contract, the work record is kept by the employer who must enter the commencement and end of the relationship, training activities and the occupational skill level achieved.

The employment-training contract has been set up for the training and vocational advancement of young people (aged 15 to 26, 29 in the case of women, and 29 and 32 in the case of graduates) through the simultaneous conduct of appropriate training courses and work in business.

Incentives and concessions are available for firms implementing these contracts; the contracts may also be converted into a permanent contract; 'call by name' has also been introduced, i.e. the possibility of establishing employment relationships outside of placement.

QUALIFICATION (Qualifica)
A term used with different meanings: it can be seen from the point of view of work and from that of employment contracts.

Qualification means (qualifications for work) the set of vocational skills possessed by a person before they enter labour organization, i.e. what they can do as a synthesis of knowledge and experience prior to and independent of the employment relationship; it also means (work categories) the trades in which a worker is employed depending on his contract (for instance lathe operator, mechanical engineer, etc.) or the contractual category (skilled worker, etc.).

The main feature of a vocational qualification is that its content must be socially recognized and formally certified.

Socially recognized in the sense that it meets the system of implicit and explicit expectations of labour organization (a qualification necessarily has, everywhere and for everyone, the same meaning in term of vocational skills).

Formally certified or validated in the sense that, under current legislation, the skills acquired must have been verified by suitable tests intended to ascertain that these skills are of the desired level enabling the worker to carry on a specific occupational activity at the end of a training course.

Vocational qualifications are of major importance: for the purposes of finding work, with reference to organizational changes in business and company and sectoral restructuring and lastly with reference to the mobility of the labour force in Italy and in the social area of the EU.

On the basis of current legislation, vocational qualifications can be obtained following:

- the certificate issued by State vocational schools;

- mixed work and training contracts (under Article 3 [7] of Law 863/86, employers must, at the end of the relationship, certify the work carried out and the results achieved by the worker, forwarding this information to the geographically competent placement office);

- apprenticeship contracts as set out in Law 25/55;
- allocation of qualifications on the basis of the tasks on which the worker is actually employed;
- verification of occupational skills under Article 14 of Law 56/87;
- certificates issued by regions to persons successful in the final examinations of vocational training courses under Article 14.1 of Law 845/78.

Outline Law 845/78 on vocational training assigns regions the task of regulating by their own legislation the methods of achieving training aims relating to qualifications.

VOCATIONAL TRAINING QUALIFICATION (Qualifica di formazione professionale)
DF CEDEFOP Conference, 22 May 1992

Outcome, legally recognized in accordance with law, regulations and conventions, of systematically imparted vocational training intended to achieve the vocational skills needed for access to a specific occupational activity.

CEDEFOP — European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training

Vocational education and training in Italy

Dott. Nicola Fressura, Dott. ssa Marina Sampietro,
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